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OFFICIAL JOURNAL OF THE A.A.L.

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Official Journal of the Association of Assistant Librarians

(Section of the Library Association)

EDITOR: W. G. SMITH

Westminster Public Libraries, Buckingham Palace Road, London, S.W.1.

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DECEMBER, 1957

Examining the Examiners

From E. F. Ferry who edits our Examination Supplement:-

Your editor sees fit to devote the editorial in the November *Assistant* to a continuation of my notes on the problems of examination failures (September, 1957). Fair enough, but a few points cannot go unchallenged, much as I dislike wrangling in public. First of all, the reference to my association with a protest about the F.P.E. at the last A.A.L. Council. "Protest" is not quite the right word to apply to an inquiry after information, and, in any case, the whole matter was deferred pending the receipt of examiners' reports. Perhaps I may be allowed to make my attitude clear. I *am* disturbed at the drop in pass percentage at F.P.E. stage, and I *would* like to know where tutors and students are going wrong. Preliminary changed to Elementary which in turn changed to Entrance without a great deal of intrinsic alteration; that is, the subjects were roughly the same, and the pass percentage did not fall to an appreciable extent. The F.P.E. brought a new concept of our first examination, with a disastrous drop in the number of successes. In spite of specimen papers, the published syllabus and subsequent examination papers, I and many others feel that we may be under-teaching or over-teaching. If Mr. Smith thinks back to the motion before Council, he will surely see that it was a request for information, not a protest.

Secondly, the statement in the September, 1956, supplement about ambiguity was made by one of the contributing tutors. An editor is not necessarily responsible for the opinions of his contributors—but perhaps this is something which Mr. Smith knows already.

One final point. I am accused of being fatuous when I state that to sit an examination without preparation is "a waste of an examiner's time." When I wrote that, I had no intention of moving any student to tears, but merely to state a fact which is true, and Mr. Smith, throughout his editorial, as good as admits it. "Awareness of current library and literary controversies," "The series of A.A.L. Guides to the Examinations proved a useful aid," "general knowledge, experience and, once again, wide periodical reading . . ."—what are these but preparation? Enterprise is praiseworthy, but foolhardiness is not, and, I repeat, to enter for an examination *without preparation* is just that—and you can take it from me that people do it. I know—I'm an examiner, who is very much concerned about the educational work of the L.A. and its effect upon professional status.

From P. H. Sewell, Head of the North-Western Polytechnic Library School:-

It is certainly desirable that no lethargy nor undue complacency should be permitted those concerned with professional education. It is also desirable that any professional debate should be based on facts.

Here are some facts concerning part-time classes in the Department of Librarianship at the North-Western Polytechnic.

The First Professional Examination calls for breadth rather than depth of perception and the kindling of interest in professional matters. Tutors for this syllabus are therefore chosen as much for personal qualities as for professional competence. Having secured the services of a tutor whom I feel I can trust, I would hesitate to direct him exactly how he should conduct the course. If one tutor thinks that an appreciation of the principles of classification can best be inculcated by stressing primarily its logical element and another its practical usefulness, I would not feel it necessary to tell either that he was wrong. At the same time records of attendance, of written work and of examination results as well as the unsolicited comments of students and their colleagues tell me a good deal about the progress of the class as a group.

Part-time lecturers for Registration and Final classes work fairly closely with full-time staff teaching the same subjects. This collaboration is carried out through casual conversations, end-of-term conferences and the week-end conferences arranged by S.C.E.L., in which N.W.P. lecturers have taken a prominent part. There has been recent collaboration in the production of "hand-outs" and of teaching syllabuses.

Librarianship is a relatively small profession in which one gets to know professional colleagues well even before they come to lecture. We have, however, a small representative Librarianship Advisory Committee which contributes useful suggestions about courses and lecturers. The report after a full inspection of the Department in 1955 gave a picture of standards of teaching and competence quite different from that suggested by your editorial. Many tutors, part-time as well as full-time, have attended short courses on teaching technique, and we receive occasional "refresher" lectures at the college. I write this not in a glow of satisfaction, but to put matters more into perspective.

Abler and more mature students can often study independently with considerable success; indeed private study is an important part of all learning. Most students, however, undoubtedly benefit from tuition, from group interchange of ideas, from organised visits and from the visual aids and other facilities which a college can provide.

From Edward Dudley, Lecturer at the Ealing Library School:-

I am, of course, aware that it is your practice to let fly in all directions in the knowledge that you are sure to hit someone who will respond and add small coals to the smoky fires you stoke up under the editorial chair, and this knowledge has in the past always restrained me from writing letters to you. But "Examiners and Tutors" is such a tenden-

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tious piece of writing that I cannot refrain from protest.

No, I am not over-concerned with the Examiner-Lecturer-Student bruhaha—after all, one of the hazards of my job to which I can usually adjust myself. The qualities lecturers don't possess and the opinions of one foreign student on an unnamed but identifiable Library School interest me but mildly. But what appears to be your own attitude to library education is sufficiently alarming to call for exposure. It appears to be another example of the minor disease of the reason to which librarians are subject—that of generalising loftily from one's own limited experience. Look—this is how W. G. Smith became successively A.L.A. and F.L.A., and it can work for you, too. Whether W. G. Smith became an educated librarian as well as a Fellow is another question. The assumptions (a) that there is too much emphasis on reading books, and (b) that there should be greater awareness of current controversies, are false and harmful. ("It is surprising how little of the formal text-book reading is really required," you say. But what strikes all lecturers and not a few students is how few "formal text-books" we have and how deficient in some respects are many of these few). On the contrary, it is the experience of many lecturers that too many students do not read enough, do not explore books themselves and are often willing to go no further than lecture notes. It is true that this attitude is sometimes encouraged by the appalling standards of book-selection to be seen in many staff libraries. These reading lists you deplore may in some cases be "out of all proportion to the real requirements of the examination" (do you mean by this that the student can read less and still pass the examination?) but their intention is to produce a professionally well-read librarian, a librarian of parts. Unnecessary, you say. Scrap this useless book-lore and fill your veins with the heady liquor of controversy. This doesn't surprise me at all, for it is an assumption on which you base the editing of our journal with the consequent flatulent rumblings which try to do duty for thought. It is true that there are some aspects of librarianship which would benefit from reasoned polemic and the workings of the

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dialectical process, but it is also true that there are others which would not. Most parts of the syllabus (and of professional education) require some knowledge of facts and, further, *a way of looking at facts*. This requires some contact with lively and mature minds. Lecturers, realising their own deficiencies, ask students to read and read widely.

So you passed a number of examinations on one book. Why don't you go a step further and plead that all reading in library education be abolished? Lecturers could then get down to the business of so organising courses that lectures and essays in themselves would be sufficient which would tidy up things all round.

In short, sir, your attitude to professional education seems to bear the CC41 stamp of utility. It is not good enough for a body of workers trying to persuade others—and themselves—that they form a profession worthy of respect.

YOUR EDITOR COMMENTS:-

With Mr. Ferry I have no quarrel and apologise for attributing to him the words of another tutor (although the remark in question does appear to be a general editorial comment rather than an individual tutor's). He does not, however, dispute the point, which is worth repeating:—

"There is more ambiguity than one expects to see in carefully prepared papers. This is most unfair to students."

Mr. Sewell is rightly proud of his School and my relations with him, as one of the part-time tutors in whom he has placed his trust, have been cordial. He is making a conscientious attempt to overcome the difficulties of the present system and considerable credit is due to him for the efforts. They should not, however, be allowed to obscure the point that most tutors, taking the country as a whole, are not really trained in teaching. This is not intended as criticism of the tutors; the part-time ones are grossly underpaid and obviously must have difficulty in fitting in all the preparation and marking with their normal full-time jobs and any other interests they may have.

Informal supervision may be possible when the part-time classes are organised by a full-time Library School, but Mr. Sewell is completely ignoring the fact that many of them are not (Mr. Dudley would say that he is "generalising from his own experience"!). In such cases the supervision is often negligible unless the tutor happens to be visited by a government inspector (who will no doubt talk loftily about it being the education rather than the examination results that count—try telling that to a student on general division pay). Mr. Sewell's facts are worth noting, but do not affect the main argument.

Our typically mild comments seem to have roused another friend, Mr. Dudley, to unusual wrath. The result is a splendid piece of invective in which, by gaily lifting telescope to blind eye, Nelson makes sure that he does not understand the article he purports to criticise.

There are more things in heaven and earth, Horatio, than formal text-books. Mr. Dudley admits that many of them are deficient, yet calmly goes on to recommend their use. His statement that greater awareness of current controversies is not desirable flatly contradicts the view of many tutors who are well aware that examination questions are not infrequently set as a direct result of recent periodical articles, often controversial. Does he not think it a good thing for students to know the current pros and cons of "service in depth," subject division of

libraries, extended co-operative schemes, the extent of catalogues desirable in varying types of libraries, stock editors and their policies, use of professional staff, and many other current controversies? Does he not recall that he himself was part-author of a controversial article in this journal which led directly to the setting of an examination question? It would appear that Mr. Dudley is to produce well-educated librarians on a surfeit of inefficient library text-books.

After throwing stones at the editor, Mr. Dudley builds his own glass-house of wild generalisations. Who said anything about "useless book-lore" or implied that reading be abolished. Only Mr. Dudley, who seems intent on building his own sandcastles for the pleasure of knocking them down again. My complaint was against too much formal library text-book reading. Other reading is essential to a good librarian and, for the L.A. examinations, I specifically recommended wide reading of literary and library periodicals. So far as the general education of a librarian goes, I would advocate considerable reading of books in many subjects, but certainly not Mr. Dudley's deficient text-books.

I did not generalise from my own experience. I merely wondered, having regard to personal experience, whether private study is not a better way of passing examinations *for anyone not able to attend a full time course*. I still wonder, in spite of Mr. Dudley's apparent denial of the right to do so, and would be interested to hear of other students' experiences. One of the objects of the *Assistant Librarian* is to gather together the views of younger members of the profession in order to help people to draw general conclusions.

To quote further from personal experience, I took a formal part-time course in Registration Group B and found that there was so much reading that it did not leave sufficient time to spend browsing among books if there was to be any time left for non-library activities—I suggest that no good librarian should confine himself to librarianship—the wider the general interests the better). I failed. I then abandoned formal text-book reading and allocated private time every day to be spent either browsing in the reference library or reading periodicals in the staff library. I passed with honours in assistance to readers and merit in bibliography, and what is more, felt that I knew far more about books than if I had taken any number of formal part-time courses.

For the whole of the finals examinations, a similar policy was pursued of avoiding the formal course, limiting the amount of library-text book reading, reading all the library periodical literature possible, visiting libraries and talking to librarians. It is not suggested that this is an adequate substitute for a *full-time* course, but is it not legitimate to wonder if this type of private study is not better than a formal *part-time* course? There are obvious difficulties to such a plan in some parts of the country where it may not be possible to visit other libraries. Even so, students in such places may have something to contribute to a discussion on the merits of various forms of part-time study, and we hope that they will not be deterred by the heavy tutorial hand of Mr. Dudley.

As to the CC41—Mr. Dudley may care to remember that it was introduced as a reasonable standard of quality in difficult times. Our road is still rocky.

Only one candidate in the First Professional Examination this Summer gained an Honours mark and she was an A.A.L. Correspondence Course student. She is Mrs. I. Mitchell of St. Andrew's University, who receives the A.A.L.'s Martin Award of £5.

ARE YOU AN AD-DICT?

by R. L. PEARCE, Folkestone Public Library

Librarians are an odd lot on the whole. How can anybody who is constantly witnessing the seamy side of life (successful modern novels), the self-undressing of the famous (successful modern autobiographies) and the sexual goings on among Asian primitives (successful modern travel books), remain impervious to all this and never feel compelled to throw his issue trays or photo-charges in the air and "do a Gauguin" to find adventure and success first-hand for himself?

Probably the answer is that having spent half his young life in study for L.A. exams., the average assistant, an incurable optimist, awaits that spark from heaven: the job that will provide all the above ingredients whilst retaining a little scope for librarianship.

The new grading scheme, which knocks most of the caterpillars slowly cimbing the A.P.T. scales back into the A.P.T.I. box for the second time in a few years, has given added urgency to the quest of the moon-seekers. The numbers of us who devour the back page of the T.L.S. every Friday, like football pools checkers with the Sunday sports page, have increased rapidly in the last few weeks. How we wish we had pressed for that Kansas job. (The rolling plains . . . everything's up to date, etc.). I, myself, had been looking for something like "Young, care-worn librarian wanted for South Seas Paradise island: six months' leave with pay. £2,000 salary. Must be good sunbather. Cigarette allowance. No F.L.A.s need apply." But then there appeared the ad. we have all seen by now, headed "Bulawayo Public Library."

Bulawayo! The swing of the word! It suggests a canoe full of steaming blacks, with the witchdoctor in the bows chanting "Aieeoko!" and the paddlers responding with the stirring chorus, "Bul-a-way-O!" There I am in the stern, immaculate in k.d. and pith helmet, casually glancing over my draft report on the reading population of Bulawayo and district, soon to be issued by Unesco.

Then the chief's office, or hut, lined with skull shelves: "Ah, Pearce," he snaps, "Have a John Collins. I want you to safari round the branches this month. See if you can trace news of your predecessor when you're in the okapi territory."

Later, it appears he has been attacked by a reader, name of Tarzan, whose wife, Jane, he had blacklisted. But then I am a book-of-the-film type and one should get the facts behind these advertisements, so I turn to *The Quest for Africa* by Schiffer. I find Francis Flynn at Chaka's court in 1825, described his residence as Bulawayo, the "Abode of the Dead." Is this prophetic, or does it merely mean it's a sort of African Frinton? The ad. says to apply to Box 586, Bulawayo, so perhaps Flynn wasn't kidding! Now try Bartlett's *The Struggle for Africa*. Quote: "Lusaka and Bulawayo are boom towns such as one might have found in the Far West at the beginning of the century." That's more like it! Now the chief says, "Pearce, it's your leave period. Why not stake a claim up at Matabele point? Young Buggins from Colchester, who came here to seek his fortune, struck it rich up there last Easter."

Probably not a true picture. My last attempt is Gunther's *Inside Africa*: he says, "The name, Bulawayo, means 'Place of Slaughter.'"

Frank G? Oh, no! The bad omens are there all right and unfortunately the dreams fade for this time.

Where's the new T.L.S.? Anything going?

Timetables

by P. S. MORRISH, Greenwich Public Libraries

THE Railway timetable has been a favourite butt for Mr Punch's charming humour: trains that never arrive, that depart before they appear, and connections which never meet. Like the poetic rolling English road, Mr. Punch's trains took the longest and most roundabout route. The humour is not entirely misdirected, for even to-day connections are advertised in the *Western Region Timetable* to depart Waterloo at 9 a.m. and arrive at Bradford (Yorks.) at 7 p.m. via Andover, Swindon, Cheltenham, Birmingham and Derby! The railway time-table does prove a difficult obstacle to many an adult enquirer who will need kindly and unerring guidance from the librarian. The standard works on reference librarianship say little about timetables, which are too often regarded as ephemeral material. Here it is attempted to analyse various railway time-tables now available and to assess their relative merits.

The railway time-tables available at present are of four types. Firstly there are the British Railways Regional Public Time-tables, entitled *Passenger Services* These are published twice a year for summer and winter schedules commencing in June and September respectively. The dates on which the tables will come into force, will vary slightly from year to year. These time-tables are published in six parts, one for each region, distinguished by a cover in the region's colour—Western (chocolate), Southern (green), Midland (maroon), Eastern (dark blue), North-eastern (orange), and Scottish (light blue). In addition, smaller booklets containing suburban services for select areas, are published, the *Southern Region Suburban Services Time-table* for example. Pamphlets of amendments are published from time to time. These are not normally available separately, but are supplied free on request. Each new amendment pamphlet cumulates previous amendments.

The second time-table is *Bradshaw's British Railways Guide* . . . It appears monthly and is mainly a cumulation in one volume of the Regional Time-tables. The third important publication is the *A.B.C. Railway Guide* which appears monthly. This is of little use except for journeys and fares to and from London, but it does give alternative bus services between main railway centres and places where few trains call. The last category comprises all the locally published railway time-tables. These often combine bus and train time-tables for a locality, one of the many examples being Headley's *Kent County Time-table*. From British Railways' point of views, these last two categories are unofficial publications.

The coverage of the Regional Time-tables naturally involves some overlapping, especially on routes which pass through several regions or which lie on regional borders. For instance, the E.R. time-table showing Scottish services from King's Cross does not stop abruptly between Doncaster and Selby, but traces through trains to their destinations. On cross-country services there is also some overlapping, the tables showing services between Bath-Salisbury-Southampton; Didcot-Newbury-Southampton, and Bodmin Road-Bodmin-Pastow, being in both the S.R. and the W.R. Timetables. But this principle is not uniformly applied. The W.R. administers services between Birmingham (New Street)-Worcester-Gloucester-Bristol, but the full time-table for this route, in the middle of W.R. territory, is to be found in the M.R. time-table. Similarly, the former Great Central Railway main line from Marylebone to Sheffield, now administered partly by W.R., partly by M.R., and partly by E.R., is to be found only in the E.R. Time-table.

A Regional Time-table is usually arranged in three parts: preliminary information, the time-tables and miscellaneous information. The preliminary information begins with *contents* and *index to stations*. The index is alphabetical and references are to table numbers. Some places which are not stations are included so that the reader can trace connecting bus or steamer services. A selective fare table is usually given and there follows a coloured section giving details of named trains, through services, sleeping car services and summary tables. The miscellaneous information, which will be discussed below, sometimes appears before the tables, sometimes after. The preliminary matter and coloured pages are followed by the time-tables themselves. These are serially numbered and of a standard conventional pattern. If the table extends over several pages, the list of stations is repeated, but the mileage is only given against the first list. The *up* table is normally separate from the *down* table. The table numbers are noted at the top of each page, and the principal stations served at the top of each table. Each train is represented by a column of timings which are to be read downwards. A journey stops either at the bottom of the table, or where the timings cease, or where a thick horizontal line is drawn across the column with the word *stop* underneath. Any subsequent timing under a *stop* represents another train. Care must be taken to distinguish *a.m.* from *p.m.*: in bus time-tables this is frequently done by printing *p.m.* times in bold type, but in railway time-tables the abbreviations *a.m.* and *p.m.* are used. These cannot always be inserted in some cases when journeys begin before noon and end after, so the table as a whole must be carefully inspected. Sunday services are given separate tables, and, especially in the summer time-table, Saturday services often are as well, so the day must also be checked.

All railway time-tables use a vast array of symbols and letters to refer the reader to notes and often more than one alphabet is used, the different styles of letter being significant (bold, light, sans and so on). Few of these symbols and letters have the same meaning from one table to another, but figures in the station column are always cross-references to other time-tables, while TC indicates *through train* (or coaches); RC, *restaurant car*; SC, *sleeping car*; and N (capital condensed) or 2 indicates *second class only*. Finally, SX or X or E are often used to indicate *Saturdays excepted*, and SO or S, *Saturdays only*.

The miscellaneous information, which may follow the tables or be included with the preliminary information in the Regional Time-tables, mainly concerns steamer services, bus interavailability, luggage and goods facilities, hotels and refreshment rooms.

Bradshaw's *British Railways Official Guide and Hotel Directory* appears monthly and is mainly a cumulation in one volume of the current Regional Time-tables, and like them is entirely revised twice a year for the summer and winter services. Most monthly issues contain a loose sheet of amendments. The arrangement is straightforward. The title page, with *contents* follows a thick hotel directory: next there is the *station index*, arranged alphabetically, giving all regional stations (and other places) in one sequence with reference to the tables. These are not numbered consecutively, but are numbered as they are in each Regional Time-table, though Bradshaw prefixes each table number with a letter indicating the region to avoid confusion. A very brief section of miscellaneous information follows, concerning seat reservation, Pullman cars, sleeping cars and Continental services. This section only gives an outline of facilities and reference will have to be made to the Regional Time-tables for full details. The time-tables follow in order: Western, Southern, Midland, Eastern, North-eastern and Scottish. *Bradshaw concludes* with a miscellaneous collection of time-tables including London Transport (Metropolitan Line); Isle of Man; Snowdon Mountain Railway; Liverpool, Birkenhead and Rock Ferry; and the Ulster Transport Commission lines. A map of the British Railways system is inserted inside the back cover.

Skinner's *A.B.C. Railway Guide* is a very different publication. Like *Bradshaw*, there is a hotel directory at the beginning, though the title page and contents precede it. The main body of the Guide is an alphabetical list of stations under towns or places, and if there is more than one station, that on the main route is given first. A certain amount of miscellaneous information is offered for each town: county, distance from London, map reference, population, early closing days, route out of London and fares from London. The station entry then states the trains to and from London. In the case of places with infrequent train services, connecting bus services with a more important rail centre are noted. After this station index, there is a valuable section of London suburban time-tables, covering places as far afield as Gillingham, Horsham, Basingstoke, Reading, Aylesbury, St. Albans, Hertford and Southend. Also included in this unique general collection of London suburban time-tables, are summary tables giving the first and last trains on each L.T.E. line ("underground" and "tube"). The *Guide* concludes with a section on ferry services, cross channel services and boat trains. A somewhat outdated map is inside the front cover.

The local time-tables are too numerous and diverse to discuss at present. As the majority of them detail all public transport in the area covered—rail, road, water and air—they are invaluable for local reference. Headley's *Kent County Time-table* has been cited as an example; another excellent production is the London Transport *Local Road and Rail Timetable* issued in twenty-one parts, each covering all road (bus and coach) and rail services regardless of the operator, within a part of the greater London area.

A comparison of these time-tables shows their merits and failings. The British Railways Regional Time-tables are the most full for official information, but there is the difficulty of six separate volumes, of regional overlap and the lack of complete fare tables. *Bradshaw*, in contrast, is only in one volume, though it lacks extensive information about seat reservations and so forth. Although published monthly, most amendments are to be found on a loose sheet. The *A.B.C. Guide* is only of use for services and fares to and from London, though it has the most comprehensive collection of London suburban services.

Much has been unstated: this survey has dealt only with time-tables covering service within England, Scotland and Wales, and not time-tables dealing with services wholly or partly across the various Channels—*Cook's Continental Time-table*, the *Ulster Transport Time-table* or the *Eire State Railways Time-table*. Nor has mention been made of the various light railways which find hospitality on the pages of the British Railways Regional Time-tables. Where, then, does the librarian stand? Should he buy all these time-tables or one? The answer is difficult because although with much in common, these time-tables have marked differences. There is also the consideration of cost. Might it be suggested that the choice should be for the official *Regional Time-tables* because of their additional information; plus the *A.B.C. Guide* for fares and London suburban services; plus the appropriate local publication?

Our congratulations to Miss E. J. Willson, President of the A.A.L., who topped the poll by a large majority in the L.A. Council elections.

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Your Letters

T.L.S. = Those Lovely Saturdays

My first feeling, on reading Mr. Forshaw's letter in the October issue, which he says is a reply to my "affusion" (a good emotive word), was one of complete mystification. Not all of this has been dispelled, but in some of Mr. Forshaw's suggestions may be a solution, not only to our troubles, but also to the discontents of our elder brother profession—medicine—discontents of which I read during the summer in the correspondence columns of my favourite newspaper.

Many doctors feel that their hours and conditions of work compare most unfavourably with those of, say, school teachers. What they need, obviously, is a five-day week—9 to 5, Monday to Friday; no irksome night calls; no Saturday surgeries. Why should so many doctors have to forsake the rugger that they played at medical school?

Coupled with this reform would come a campaign by the B.M.A.—to be relied on in such matters as the L.A. is not—via TV, radio, and even perhaps printed matter. This would show how the public, in the past, had been bedevilled by a service run by doctors whose lack of aptitude for the job in hand was evidenced by their willingness to forgo that long week-end which is now every Briton's birthright. Had these niggers-in-the-woodpile had sufficient knowledge of what constituted medicine, perhaps they would never have entered the profession, and we should have had long since what we were now to glory in—a national five-day week for doctors, accompanied, of course, by a five-day week for illness as well. O brave new world! No more acute illness, no more childbirth, no more little aches and pains, in the small hours of night, in the sacrosanct stretches of the British Week-end. This picture of bliss would naturally bear a price-label, and it is to be hoped that the medical profession would not be satisfied with the modest demands made in less progressive days.

Such a scheme would be less easy for librarians, held back as we are by reactionary governing bodies of various sorts, to carry into effect; but no doubt Mr. Forshaw and I could work out something between us.

KENNETH THIMBLEBY, *Camberwell Public Library.*

WANTED: Lib. ass. No sats.

Mr. Forshaw's contribution so interested me that I was prompted to offer a few observations myself—the first time in history. My second reason for writing is because I am a very 'umble member of the profession and would not like to be confused with his "this is beneath us" brigade.

I congratulate him on his discernment when he states that "there are many people working in libraries to-day who have no right to be there . . . such people have no aptitude for the job in hand . . ." He then proceeds to give reasons for this state of affairs and goes on to advocate (among other things) closing down on Saturday afternoons. Once more I congratulate him on his discernment "that there are many people, etc." Here I feel I must accuse him of being vain and tending to look in the mirror too often.

When opening hours were first decided for Public Libraries, the majority of the public in its wisdom chose Saturday afternoon as the most convenient time for borrowing. In Liverpool, Saturday afternoon is the busiest period of the whole week in lending libraries, and I do not think the borrowers are deliberately attempting to thwart Mr. Forshaw's aspirations regarding free Saturday afternoons.

No doubt if Mr. Forshaw had his way, the public relations system which he so much desires would be able to explain to the public why some members of the profession would have us close when our services are most needed.

Finally to show what a reasonable being I am, I will make this concession to your correspondent. It might be that the libraries in Staffordshire County are not busy on Saturdays, in which case I extend my sympathy to those colleagues who are expected to kill time in such periods.

On the strength of my few remarks, there are those who will dismiss me as a "library type," but as stated earlier, I am very 'umble and will only accept the honour if it is thrust on me.

A. C. O. ELLIS, *Liverpool Public Libraries.*

One Who Acted:

Protest to Nalگو

I should like to congratulate you upon your editorial in the October issue. Particularly upon your remarks relating to the participation of librarians in NALGO affairs. There are signs of improvement in this direction, but I think that very much remains to be done. Continued pressure from your columns would help enormously.

I have taken up the matter of gradings at local Branch level, and persuaded my Executive to write to Nalگو headquarters as follows:—

"This Committee regrets the delay in dealing with the Salary Award for Chartered Branch Librarians in charge of a staff of three, and strongly urges the Staff side of the NJC to insist upon the regrading of this category of Officer in the new APT II at least; and further urges that the Staff Side should not agree to any compromise which entails placing Librarians on any Special Scale which is inferior to the APT Scale."

We have had a reply which assures us that a meeting is to be held in the very near future to discuss the grading of library staffs, and that the Staff Side representatives will do everything they possibly can to secure an improvement in the existing situation.

I feel that though your medium other Branches could be induced to forward resolutions in similar vein, and that the combined pressure might produce results.

Best wishes to you and to the *Assistant*, which, in spite of all the recent criticisms, remains always very readable and vastly entertaining.

M. W. DEVEREUX, *Chairman, Bootle Branch, Nalگو.*

A.B.C. or BRADSHAW

P. S. Morrish criticised last month our tutor's comments in the September Examination Supplement on railway timetables. On page 212, Mr. Morrish further expounds on this subject. Meanwhile the tutor E. A. Willats, replies:—

P.S. Morrish is to be congratulated in spotting the fact that I used the phrase, London Passenger Transport, instead of London Transport Executive. I am, of course, aware of the 21 Local Road and Rail time-tables of the London Transport Executive, since these are in stock in my own Reference Library; however, they do contain the time-tables of the L.T.E. country buses, as well as those of other provincial bus services, like, for example, the Eastern National.

I totally disagree about the A.B.C. It gives fares to and from the main London terminal, suburban time-tables, and gives all the principal trains on main line routes. This is what the majority of library users want; also it's easy-to-understand form commends it to the layman in timetables' use. I agree that it is of no use for other main line services or cross-country routes or inter-connections.

I deliberately used the phrase "and/or"; I agree that the regional guides are superior to Bradshaw, but some smaller authorities may not want to stock all of them. Nor did I champion the A.B.C. above the others.

I do not see why anyone should want them all, but some larger systems may wish to be prepared for any eventuality, e.g., when one of the Regional ones is in use, or a complete survey is wanted, Bradshaw might suffice.

The exam. questions are supposed to test all eventualities.

For reasons of space, I could not include all matters relevant. For instance, I did not mention the British Railways Holiday Guides, a "must" for any Holiday Information Service.

But few candidates can be ignorant of them. I had already exceeded my allocation of space.

MOBILE MATURITY

Some mobile librarians have felt strongly enough to clutter up your magazine with trivialities. Let them feel even more strongly and think rather more maturely about their jobs; as, what is to be achieved and the methods used to achieve it.

Let them commit their thoughts to paper and to you. References to mobile libraries and work in on and about them are scattered throughout our periodical literature. The latest text of authority and value was published in 1950; and the most that one can say for text books in Librarianship is that some of them are post-war.

A collection of essays would at least advance the profession slightly, collating present practice, with a list of references in the periodicals.

One would also suggest a standard presentation of essays for ease of comparison.

D. T. CLARKE.

DANISH LIBRARIES

Although I agree with most of his conclusions, I think Leslie Greaves was hardly fair in his article *Contrasting Concepts* in his emphasis on the lack of use of Danish public libraries. I went on the same library Study Tour and I suggest he should recall that we were visiting libraries in glorious June sunshine; on several occasions we were shown round a library first thing in the morning—not a busy time in many British public libraries. It was my impression that the Danes make the most of a short summer and that the pattern of life is very different in the winter. Theatres, for example, close from May to September; and I remember visiting a new branch library in Frederiksberg which closed at 4 p.m. in June, July and August, but remains open until 8 p.m. for the rest of the year.

I feel sure that Mr. Greaves and I would not be disappointed if we were able to see the use being made of (say) the magnificent new Central Library in Copenhagen at this time of year.

K. A. STOCKHAM, *Essex County Libraries*.

Review

Reference books and bibliographies; a union list. Edited by L. M. Payne and Joan M. Harries. G.L.D., A.A.L. 1957. 6s. 6d. (c/o A. Bill, County Branch Library, The Stow, Harlow, Essex).

This volume is a combination with some revision of the G.L.D.'s earlier *Union List of Bibliographies* (1950) and *Union List of Reference Books* (1954). The libraries participating in this list number nearly 100 and cover Greater London with one or two further afield in the Home Counties. They are mainly public libraries, but a few special and university libraries are included. Some 800 works are listed, a selection of mainly major reference and bibliographical material.

The list is intended to help the student locate works to be studied in the course of library education, but two secondary uses should commend it to librarians outside London—it may help in book-selection for reference libraries, and it will undoubtedly save lecturers' and students' time in the verification of citations, although numbering of the entries would have helped still further.

Glancing through the list one is tempted, to make generalisations about book selection in reference libraries, not all of them complimentary. But the frequent appearance of the symbols for the University of London Library and Westminster Public Library, the only two locations for some works, is a sharp reminder that London still lacks major public reference libraries. The staffs of these libraries can see in this little volume the reason for the daily visits from libraries elsewhere.

Lithographic reproduction from typescript has apparently enabled the book to be sold at a very low cost. It can be recommended as a most useful aid to both Registration and Finals students with the obvious warning that the examinations no longer require a superficial knowledge of the number of reference books here listed.

EDWARD DUDLEY

Librarians and Booksellers

L. G. Lovell, Chief Librarian of Rotherham continues the debate :-

May I be permitted to take the Net Book Agreement argument a little further? So far from destroying the case for improved terms, Mr. Guy strengthens it. I buy my books by methods which cause booksellers little trouble: I provide full bibliographical details on orders, rarely buy except to firm order (and when I do buy on approval make an immediate decision on retention), order odd pamphlets direct from the publishing body by postal order, not from a bookseller, require one simple invoice only, and pay bills monthly. So, I think, do a great many librarians.

At the moment, in order that a bookseller may still make a living out of those hopeless librarians who resort to the slapdash practices Mr. Guy outlines, I get what I consider unreasonably poor terms from my suppliers. In fact, I am helping to pay for other people's approval services, complex invoicing, and general incompetence, not to mention paying the wages and expenses of booksellers' travellers who are redundant as far as I am concerned, but who do render a service to the librarians who buy by "flipping through the book-jackets." Naturally, if (as I advocate) an open tendering system replaced a flat 10 per cent. discount, the fact that I consider booksellers in my ordering methods, and do not require "servicing" (other than plastic jacketing and reinforcing, which I pay for) would mean that, on the amount I have to spend, I could get better terms than another librarian with the same amount to spend, but whose methods of buying the booksellers found wasteful and costly to themselves. Details of purchasing methods would be written into the specification governing the tenders, and both sides would have to abide by them.

Mr. Guy advocates "purchasing directly from the local booksellers" as there "we can see every book possible." Mr. A. C. Jones foresees reduced margins detracting from the quality of booksellers' services, and both of these gentlemen, together with Mr. Gann, refer to the meagre profits of bookselling. Mr. Guy, having I believe spent most of, if not all, his professional lifetime in the hardly typical district of St. Marylebone, may not perhaps realise what passes for a local bookseller in most provincial towns, but I am certain that both Mr. A. C. Jones and Mr. Gann can think of "local booksellers" whose assistants know much more about Christmas Cards and soft toys than books, whose "stocks" are already "debased" to a window or two of paper-backs (some even keep no stock and do no non-library trade *at all*), who have no bibliographical knowledge or resources whatsoever, and who, in fact, have about the same relationship to Harrison of Ipswich, Hudson of Birmingham, and several firms in Oxford and Cambridge as my village lending centres have to Manchester Reference Library.

What local bookseller can give us anything like the range of stock to select from (and, except from opening new service points most of us do little selecting from stock, anyway) that we can see at the warehouses of such library supply firms as Askew, Woolston, and for children's books Woodfield and Stanley? And, if I decide it is economical to provide them in that form and local booksellers cannot produce pre-bound, reinforced, or plastic jacketed editions what alternative have I to dealing with library suppliers?

I strongly deplore (as would, I am sure, our employing authorities if they knew of the idea) the suggestion implicit in all your three correspondents' letters that libraries have any sort of moral duty to keep booksellers in business by a hidden subsidy (for that is what artificially bad terms amount to) from the library rate. I have said before, and still say, and any librarian who keeps his eyes and ears open knows as well as I do, that *efficient* booksellers, small as well as large, local as well as library supplier, are doing very well out of the business at the moment. I have no more qualms about *inefficient* booksellers being (in Mr. A. C. Jones's words) "driven to their knees" than I have about incompetent sopranos not being able to get engagements (except in Great Britain) to sing the "Queen of the Night." We are better off without both.

Librarians and Copyright

In October, Neville Dain, Head of the Leeds Library School, discussed the terms of the Copyright Act, 1956, with regard to document copying. We now print the following exchange of letters in the hope that open discussion of any ambiguities may help to clarify the matter for all librarians.

From R. G. GRIFFIN, Librarian of The Chemical Society:—

I have just read the article by Mr. Neville Dain relating to the new Copyright Act, and it seems to me that it calls for comment. It may be that Mr. Dain has read something into the Copyright Act which I have missed or that one or other of us has misinterpreted certain clauses.

He says that "profit might be included in the charges of non-personal readers to be offset against the charges of personal readers." I cannot see that there is any provision in the Act for "non-personal readers" which I interpret as meaning corporate bodies. It is quite clear from the Copyright Regulations issued by the Board of Trade in consequence of the Act that any request must bear the personal signature of the person actually going to use the copy, and the form must carry the statement that the signature of an agent is not acceptable. Hence I do not see how a reader can be anything else but "personal."

Since the reader must sign a form complying with the requirements of the Copyright Regulations, it would seem reasonable that these forms could act as a register of copies supplied, and in fact in the Chemical Society Library such forms have been in use for a considerable period and have always been preserved for some five years.

Since this subject is of such importance, I would be interested to learn Mr. Dain's opinion on what I have said, and I think that further discussion in your columns would be worth while.

NEVILLE DAIN replies:—

I think that both your correspondent and I have accurately read S.I. 868 of 1957 "The Copyright (Libraries) Regulations," but I have chosen to see the possibility that libraries may distinguish private readers (whom I vaguely and therefore unsatisfactorily called personal readers) from readers who are employed on research projects for corporate bodies. Both kinds of readers would be personal in the sense that they may need copies of documents to support their particular (and therefore personal) work.

Nothing in the Regulations makes it inadmissible that an organisation, or an institute, or even a profit-making firm should allow an officer or other employee to obtain copies of documents for use in research programmes which are being carried out for the benefit of corporate

bodies. The only stipulation is that the person asking for the copy should be the person who will use it for research. Many institutes and firms are, in this as in other countries, organising research by their employees on an increasing scale, and any research work actually carried out by employees personally is nevertheless done for the sake of a corporate entity.

My distinctions may now be clear, and they are not in conflict with the requirements of the Regulations for personal signatures of the intending users of copies of documents.

The charges for copies may include as much profit as a library authority chooses to add to the costs of copies. The phrase "not less than the cost" (vide the Act para. 7 (1) (e), and S.I. 868/1957, para. 5(b)) would sanction the charging of prices which produce a profit. What is more significant is that the prices need not be uniform or unvarying. It would seem to be admissible for the cost to be assessed after profits have been taken into account. As the estimates of cost would be necessarily based on the aggregate of work, the net cost could be kept low by levying profits for some categories of copying and those categories might well be copying for persons engaged on research at both official and industrial addresses.

It is almost certain that the copies used by such persons will be paid for by a corporate body of some sort. The professional principle of the pre-war days that the rich should help to pay for the poor is still a good one, when the distinctions are applied to private persons and to comparatively wealthy bodies of persons. As I implied in my previous item, I have in fact encountered such a principle in this connection, and I hope very much that it will become more widely adopted.

The form of request specified in the Third Schedule of the Regulations may, of course, be retained permanently, but it would be convenient to retain also a ledger record which would include prices, as well as the other details. The forms might thus be arranged as an index to the ledger.

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RESTRICTIVE PRACTICES

by Brian C. Skilling

When the professional librarian uses the term "Restrictive practices," he is often involved in a discussion on the behaviour of the manual worker. He is probably proud of the absence of "restrictive practices" in the library profession. The older members of the Staff tell tales of how in times past they offed jackets and performed all manner of labour; not for them the selectiveness of to-day's manual worker. Yes, the professional librarian can take a quiet pride in the way he tackles almost any work that comes his way, from compiling bibliographies to sticking in date-labels, and while he does so his standard of living slides gently down.

In spite of increased technical qualifications the chartered librarian to-day is often earning less (in terms of spending power) than the man who held his post before the war. One reason for this is that the majority of librarians have failed to show that their work is skilled. There are times when all of us doubt the knowledge in library matters of those who serve on Library Committees, but they are not fools, and if they visit the library and see professional staff performing semi-skilled tasks, then they are surely justified in paying semi-skilled rates, and in thinking that librarianship consists largely of shuffling books and dealing them out again. The public, also, are capable of distinguishing between routine and other work. What are they to think of the qualifications of a reference library staff who are to be found dusting the books in their "idle" moments? This latter occurred in a progressive library with photo-charging in the lending department.

I am sure each of you could name other examples of waste if you stop and think, but the staff in question seldom do stop to think; they are all rather nice people, and their seniors are all rather nice people, and their predecessors always did it anyway. So it goes on. We cry for more time to practise "real" librarianship, and yet we fill part of our days attending to matters that could quite easily be handled by general assistants.

What is needed is the introduction of "restrictive practices" into public library work. Before all the professional gentlemen recoil in horror, let me point out that our employers will be the first to gain, since they will not be paying a skilled wage (however poor) for work that could be done by a G.D. assistant. Having accepted that fact, how are we to impose these "restrictive practices"? Not by striking, that would be unprofessional, and, I suspect, few of us could afford to. There are much gentler methods, first, to all Chief Librarians, Deputies, and Heads of Departments—Are any of your chartered librarians engaged at any time in dusting books, shelving books, repairing books, or any other job of an unskilled nature? If so, isn't it time you stopped this dreadful waste of staff? For the individual the problem is more difficult, but a useful time to make a stand is when you change appointments, then you can indicate tactfully those tasks which you do not consider professional. If, of course, you have been at the same library "man and boy," then it is still more difficult, but it may be possible to adopt the "Project Ploy." Look around for some big job that needs doing, draw the attention of authority to it, and offer to take the matter in hand. Before long you will find yourself so busy that there won't be time for you to do the shelving, and what is more—no one will expect you to. The unimaginative may be at a loss for projects, but they are not really difficult to find: What about

the special collection; is it properly catalogued and classified? How long is it since the reserve stock was weeded out? Are all the civic holiday and town guides up-to-date copies? What about subject check-lists? Start with a subject you are interested in, and soon you will find yourself immersed, and what is more you will be doing work that might be termed professional.

Whilst I am firmly convinced that chartered librarians should be selective in their work, I also believe that they should show breadth of outlook by being prepared to do any job in an emergency and not allowing culture to be brought to standstill because the juniors have gone sick. With this proviso, I say, let us at once declare ourselves in favour of "Restrictive practices."

A BOUND TO REPETITION ?

by Tony Shearman

The latest book published by the Library Association (*Classics of Librarianship*, by J. L. Thornton, 1957) shows no attempt by the Publications Committee to produce books that are physically exciting to possess. The typography (no mention of the type face used) is conventional and the general design "safe"; the paper is fluffy and porous; and the boards are covered with a green cloth of a most unpractical kind: it is sticky to the touch and quickly becomes dirty. Was all this done to keep the book like its companion (*Mirror for Librarians*, Grafton, 1948)? For the sake of economy? Or for lack of inspiration? At 17s. 6d. to L.A. members enough could surely have been done to have avoided these deficiencies without showing up the poverty of Grafton's book design and the poverty of the Publications Committee, financially or inspirationally.

Lack of invitation should not put off any librarian who is interested in his profession, however. The contents are on the whole worth representing, though the older extracts are more satisfying than the later ones. The pall of old battles and conflicts of personality still hangs over the turn of the century, where Doctor John Dee's proposal to Queen Mary for a national library is absolutely convincing in its antiquity (1556). It would be salutary for writers of letters to the professional Press to use this book as an anthology of perennial topics and to make sure that what they are about to write has not been said before in the same or better words. Indeed what I have just written is better said by Johnson (*Idler*, No. 85): "To exact of every man who writes that he should say something new would be to reduce authors to a small number . . . Yet surely there ought to be some bounds to repetition. Libraries ought no more to be heaped with the same thoughts differently expressed than with the same books differently decorated. . . Writers might take care to inform themselves before they inform others"; and by H. R. Tedder (page 94 of *Classics of Librarianship*): "The librarian who writes is lost" is much more to the point, and if librarians would make good catalogues instead of indifferent books, the world would be much better served by them."

The *Assistant* to-day is being read in a world mighty different from the world J. C. Dana knew. There is a hydrogen bomb and a space satellite; there is Jayne Mansfield and there is skiffle. Yet only recently in the *Assistant* these things that Dana said in 1896 have been laboriously resaid: "Look first to your personal growth." Get into touch with the world. Let no one point to you as an instance of the narrowing effects of too much of books," and, "We are, to put it bluntly, of very

little weight in the community" (both on page 132 of *Classics of Librarianship*).

Mr. Thornton gives the warning in his preface: "Some librarians have achieved fame for the systems they have built up, for their personalities, or for their influence on the development of contemporary librarianship, yet wrote nothing outstanding that affected the profession, or that can be read to-day with profit." Read this book then and you may not be lost when your turn comes for inclusion in the inevitable anthology of the future.

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CATALOGUING AND CLASSIFICATION

Tutors' Comments edited by:

E. F. Ferry

"We now have a test which calls for a course of study and which may be regarded as a suitable prelude to the Registration examination." We quote ourselves (*Assistant Librarian*, Sept., 1956) without apology, as recent correspondence in *The Library Association Record* and a statement by Dr. C. B. Oldman in *The Library World* seem to endorse that opinion. 13th June, 1956, no doubt provided a rude awakening to many but, as one of our most respected Library School heads put it, another 600 rode into the Valley of Death in November last. Far be it from us to enter the lists with Messrs. Corbett, Kelly and Murison, but we would reiterate that the F.P.E. is now a rigorous test, and one which may well work towards the ultimate good of the profession, purifying like a refiner's fire, so to speak. One could also pull in arguments for the division of staff into professional and non-professional grades, but these things are out of place here.

So much for the preamble to the subject of our present edition, which is devoted to the last examination in Registration Group A. This is apparently a difficult group if one is to judge by pass percentages, but a little inside information suggests one of two things—assistants are (a) tackling the group too early or (b) without adequate preparation. Because it is the first part of a quadruple examination, it does not follow that it must occupy a similar position in an assistant's programme. In both theory papers, the factual knowledge should be obtainable with a reasonable amount of effort, but only experience and background knowledge can arm a candidate to deal with questions of opinion, or questions dealing with specialist types of cataloguing. This points to a few years' orientation before Group A is attempted. The second point is that in this Group, the candidate who "has a bash" is asking for trouble. He wastes his and the Association's money, and the examiner's time and temper.

We generalise, of course. There are those cases which demolish both points, but they are not to be taken by the mass as examples. We venture to suggest, however, that there is nothing to be afraid of in Group A, provided the subjects are approached with a relaxed and orderly mind. Facts can be learned—experience should do the rest. This really adds up to the fact that the training necessary for the F.P.E. should go some way towards preparing an assistant for the rigours of Registration, in mental discipline if not in total knowledge.

Not all questions in Group A have been dealt with. Straightforward questions on classification numbers or code rules have been ignored—students are quite capable of holding their personal inquests on such problems. Contributors have, therefore, concentrated upon the more contentious questions, not with a view to prolonging arguments, but as an attempt to resolve candidates' difficulties.

Once again, our thanks are due to a willing group of helpers, who include Misses N. K. Firby and M. G. Gregory and Messrs. W. E. G. Critchley, C. Harris, J. Ingham, J. Mills and C. W. Taylor.

CLASSIFICATION THEORY

Q1 Q2

Q.1. Discuss the various definitions of bibliographical classification you have met, and embody your conclusions in your own definition.

Definitions of bibliographical classification fall into two broad groups; those drawn up by writers who believe in a "natural order," and that a bibliographical classification should be based on it, and those drawn up by writers who believe that bibliographical classification is a purely empirical matter of achieving a "helpful order," not necessarily related to scientific or logical classification.

In the first group we have Richardson's statement "The closer a classification can get to the true order of the sciences and the closer it can keep to it, the better the system will be and the longer it will last." This idea is followed by Sayers "The order of knowledge and of the sciences is the basis of book classification," and by Phillips "Book classification is a knowledge classification with adjustments conditioned by the physical form of books." Bliss adds a new note by substituting "the scientific and educational consensus," for the older idea of "natural order." This view is now rather old-fashioned, though it still has its adherents; writing as recently as 1953, Tauber says "That there are differences between knowledge classification and book classification is obvious, but the resemblance between them is even greater."

The reaction against these views seems to have set in for two reasons; firstly modern scientists are much less classification-minded than their predecessors, and secondly, difficulties arise in applying these ideas. The main difficulty is that knowledge classification deals with discrete ideas, whilst books are composite or conglomerate. Thus a bibliographical classification based on a knowledge classification is apt to include many headings for which no books exist, e.g. "library doormats" in the Decimal classification, whilst not including places for subjects on which many books have been written. Another reason is that if a chart of knowledge could be drawn up, it would be in the form of a solid (three dimensional) model; or at least a complex two dimensional diagram like that at the beginning of the Bibliographic Classification, and that such a model cannot be reproduced in a simple linear order of books on shelves or entries in a catalogue. Hence the modern interest in "information retrieval systems" like punched cards or co-ordinate indexing, which do not depend on a linear order and do allow a multi-dimensioned approach.

Thus we come to the second group of definitions, exemplified by Hulme: "Classification is a mechanical time-saving operation for the discovery of knowledge in books." Hulme considers that the confusion of bibliographical classification on the one hand, with knowledge classification and logical classification on the other, has greatly hindered constructive thought on bibliographical classification, and Foskett has even suggested that we drop the term "Classification," as applied to books, and use "systematic arrangement" instead. Hulme's ideas are followed by Savage in his *Manual of Book Classification and Display*. Ranganathan, too, does not introduce any idea of "natural order," saying merely that the purpose of classification "is to arrange books in a helpful order."

Despite Bliss's works, this second school is in the ascendant, and at present there is a movement away from the idea that one scheme of classification is suitable for all kinds of library, to the view that since different types of library have different aims and needs they will require different classification schemes, e.g. a "reader interest" arrangement in small popular home reading libraries, a scholarly bibliographical classification for a large general reference or university library, and a special scheme for a special library.

My own definition would be "Bibliographical classification is a method of arranging either books and documents, or entries in a catalogue, in an order which staff and readers will find convenient and helpful for the purpose of facilitating reference and information work."

Q.3. Explain why readers may find the books in which they are interested, distributed in several places on the shelves.

The answer to this question may be divided into two parts. Firstly the theories on which a book classification is based can result in the apparent separation of books on a particular subject. Secondly the layout of an individual library and the physical form of individual books may cause a similar separation.

"Subject" matter can be divided into two parts—"material" and "purpose." The practical classification recognises that "purpose" is the major part of a subject and the schedules are constructed to give places for the "purpose" aspect. For example, in Dewey, anyone interested in ships will find relevant information at 387.623.8, 359, and 656. A reader could easily argue that all these aspects of the subject "ships" should be at one place in the scheme. However, it is more useful to the greatest number of readers to recognise these aspects ("purpose") as being individual and separate subjects more closely related to other subjects, e.g. 359 Naval science is closer to Military Science 355, than to Shipbuilding 623.8. At this point the student could refer to Brown's Subject Classification which attempted to be "one place," thus grouping "subject" by "material."

The wider the subject in which the reader is interested, the more likely it is that relevant matter will be distributed at several places on the shelves. A reader interested in English poetry will find all books on this subject together if he is using a Dewey classed library, but if he is interested in English literature of the 18th century, he will also find books at 820, 822, 823, 824, etc. Likewise the reader who wants guides to Rome will find all the guides in one place, but if he wishes to make a complete study of Italy and the Italians, he will find relevant material in the Sociology, Fine Art, Travel and History classes. All that a classification can do is to arrange books in groups which will be most useful to the largest number of readers. That is why the Library of Congress scheme is so good, because it was fitted to an actual large collection of books, which may be said "to have arranged themselves" according to readers' needs. Classifications arranged according to a compiler's strongly held preconceived theories of knowledge will always result in unexpected subject distribution.

Now the physical causes of this type of subject separation should be considered. There is the problem of shelving books with wide range of format. Most libraries require some "parallel arrangements," and in spite of explanatory guide notices, many readers do not find all that the library possesses on a particular subject. Another cause of this problem is local schemes of subject displays; because too much "broken order" is again putting difficulties in the reader's way when he is trying to locate the maximum information on a particular subject.

Q.4. Describe any circumstances in which you would advocate the use of 'broad classification.'

First of all define "broad classification":—the use of only the main sections of a classification schedule in a library for the convenience of readers, or the avoidance of minute sub-divisions of classes. Then state that this is a controversial issue in the application of library classification. The advocates of "broad classification" maintain that too close classification results in long numbers which confuse readers. Also with a small collection of books minute sub-division can divide rather than group. In the United States there is a strong leaning towards "broad classification" for the small and medium public libraries. Quote here the 15th edition of Dewey which was a severe pruning of the 14th ed., and gave its blessing to the adoption of "broad classification," whenever local conditions made it possible. Mention that the proposed 16th ed. is to revert to the pattern of the 14th ed.

Having stated the general case for "broad classification," then give specific instances where you might use it. The following are examples where there could be a good case put forward for "broad classification":—

(1) Public libraries with stocks up to 50,000 volumes serving populations up to 40,000. A critic might say that, in a small public library, to start by using "broad classification" may cause more work in the future when the library grows and close classification is required for a much increased stock. However, in practice there is a limit to the size of any public library, which can be gauged when that service is begun. This size limit is determined by the possible population increase in the area and the financial wealth of that area.

(2) In large public libraries arranged by subject departments, the general reading department could be broadly classified, because of the type of recreational reader being catered for. Of course the special subject departments themselves would require close classification.

(3) Junior libraries could well have broad classifications because minute subdivisions are of little value to children. Furthermore, the "life" of junior book-stock is not very long and close classification would be wasted time.

(4) Branch libraries could have broad classification where the stock is predominantly recreational. However, it should be noted that such a policy in branch libraries depends very much on whether the central library maintains a union catalogue, because in that case full subject location value of a catalogue would be minimised if part of the stock was broadly classed.

(5) The student could mention that many National Libraries are broadly classified, e.g. British Museum. This is because readers using such libraries are supposed to know pretty well beforehand the books they require by author. That is to say that users of National Libraries are usually scholars who do their initial subject location by means of bibliographies.

In conclusion the student should state that the application of "broad classification" depends purely on local conditions, and that if there is any doubt whether it should be applied because of possible future library developments, then it would be advisable to apply the full schedules.

Q.6. It has been announced that the 16th edition of the Decimal Classification will revert to the pattern of the 14th edition. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of this policy.

This question was obviously set to test the interest of the student in current professional periodical reading with particular reference to *The Library Association Record* of June, 1956. In this issue, the Chairman of the Dewey Classification Editorial Policy Committee deals with much of the background in the building of the editions of Dewey since 1930, and a reading of this article together with that of Thelma Eaton in the November, 1955, issue of the *Record* would have provided ample material for a good answer. The criticisms levelled at the 15th edition covered many points; the main contention appeared to be that in an effort to produce a "standard" edition, the Editorial Board had departed from the system as it had been adopted in libraries throughout the world, and that this deviation would result in great inconvenience and cost in alteration or adaption. It would appear that the principle of "no-change" enunciated since the inception of the scheme had been violated, and about a quarter of the numbers in the 15th edition would involve the medium or large library in considerable adjustments. Students might balance this obvious practical fact, with the constant demand for the need of revised schedules. The large national bibliographical services, such as the B.N.B. and H. W. Wilson, Co., too, were placed in an invidious position in that numbers allocated by the 14th edition now indicated other subjects and the original subjects enumerated bore new numbers.

It was obvious, therefore, that these changes threatened to undermine the value and integrity of the scheme and the Special Advisory Committee in 1953 submitted new recommendations embodying a near return to the accepted features of the 14th edition. They stressed that re-allocations should be permitted, but that they should be restricted and only made where required by new ideas and approaches, where previous treatment had become absurd or where there was an overwhelming need or demand.

This does not indicate a lack of flexibility in the outlook of the Committee; indeed, as the work on the new 16th edition progressed, it was revealed that the revision was keeping pace with knowledge and not being limited to another "procrustean bed." A free hand in the allocation of numbers between the 4,600 of Edition 15 and the 30,000 of Edition 14 could result in a well-balanced and evenly expanded scheme and allow full coverage of subjects.

In studying this background of the new edition and its potential virtues, the student should not lose sight of the value of the 15th edition and of any possibility of the development of its pattern. In spite of the many criticisms raised, interesting new points were introduced, and in many cases more sensible expansions adopted. A reading of periodical articles and the section in Phillips will provide some of the basic material for the "pros" here, but the return to the original pattern of the earlier editions will certainly be welcomed by all libraries who have had to contemplate the re-numbering of thousands of books and the re-typing of many more thousands of catalogue entries.

Q.7. *Examine the theory of the collocation of applications with the sciences on which they are based, as interpreted by Brown in the Subject Classification.*

In the Introduction to the Subject Classification, Brown states "The old distinction between theoretical and applied science is gradually disappearing from all modern text-books," and consequently formulates his principle of placing "each subject as near as possible to the science on which it is based."

This statement contains much truth. No chemist would approve Dewey's separation of pure chemistry and chemical technology, but there are not many such examples of a technology being based on one pure science; it is more common to find a technology being based on several pure sciences, e.g. the automobile industry. Research in the motor industry would include engines, airflow over body shapes, properties of various materials, wood, metal, plastics, etc. Such composite technologies cannot be collocated with any one pure science and Brown was wrong to put the automobile industry at B 570 following physics. In addition to the scientific technologies there are many crafts and trades not based on any pure science, e.g. furniture making, plumbing, etc.

The distinction, which Brown failed to draw, between a scientific technology and a craft or trade, lies in the question of what prior study is needed to carry it out. Obviously a chemical engineer must study pure chemistry at a high level before he can become a chemical engineer; equally obviously a radio engineer must study physics at an advanced level. Therefore Brown was correct to collocate Pure Chemistry (D 700) with Chemical Technology (D 900) and Radio Communication (B 637) with Physics (B 000). But a chimney sweep does not need to do a University or Technical College course in physics, nor does a steeple jack, consequently Brown was wrong to subordinate these two subjects as sub-divisions of heat in physics (C 215 and C 217 respectively).

The distinction between a scientific technology based on one pure science and a composite technology is that the latter recruits workers with different sorts of scientific background.

The trouble with the Subject Classification is that Brown, having formulated a valid principle, carried it to ridiculous extremes because he failed to distinguish between: (a) a scientific technology which is wholly or mainly based on a single pure science, (b) composite technologies based on several pure sciences, (c) trades or crafts which do not require a detailed theoretical basis, being taught mainly by the apprenticeship method.

Any modern scheme must do as Bliss does and group the scientific technologies with pure science, but provide a separate Useful Arts class for composite technologies and for trades and crafts. Such a classification should have alternative locations to suit the needs of particular libraries.

Q.9. *To what extent can a classification scheme designed for a particular library be successful in general use?*

In the first place, students will appreciate that practically all the main book schemes were formulated for one particular library in the first instance, or as a result of the experience of the formulator in one particular library. Candidates should recognise that only a library with a comprehensive stock could be used as a basis for such general treatment. Bearing this in mind, this question could perhaps best be answered by referring particularly to the Library of Congress scheme which has been successfully adopted in many libraries of different types. In Britain, for example, it is used in libraries such as the National Library of Wales, the Edinburgh Public Library, The Home Office and other government departments, and the scheme is gaining favour particularly in college libraries. The main value in adopting such a scheme is that it is based essentially on books and on the use made of a stock of 3,000,000 books; it is unlikely that general libraries will have any difficulty in placing books in such inflated schedules. On the other hand, it will be appreciated that the Library of Congress is really a series of large specialised libraries and the amount of detail and specific allocation employed may not be necessary or suitable in general libraries where the stocks in particular classes may be small or even non-existent.

Despite these disadvantages and the often complex notation involved, the scheme has much to offer. The permanence of the classification is assured by the financial assistance given by the U.S. Government, and the quarterly publishing listing new numbers has obvious merits recommending its adoption, particularly in larger libraries.

CATALOGUING THEORY

Q.2. *What in your opinion are the TEN most important events in the history of cataloguing? State briefly the reason for your choice.*

I doubt if any ten people would agree without prior consultation on the same ten "most important" events in the history of cataloguing. Catalogues have existed as long as libraries; but the following list excludes ancient and mediaeval catalogues and cataloguing methods as they have little, if any, direct influence on cataloguing to-day:—

(1) *The British Museum General Catalogue of Printed Books, 1881-1900*; and supplement 1900-05. New ed. begun in 1931. The old edition, out of print for many years, has been reproduced by photomechanical means in a reduced size, which, although difficult to read, is still extensively consulted. Although earlier catalogues existed, the B.M. general catalogue may be said to have originated modern cataloguing practice. It is widely used by other libraries. It set a standard for other library catalogues, and is an example of the application of a system of rules for author headings of great value.

(2) *Library of Congress Catalogue.*

After a series of printed book catalogues and catalogues compiled from slips pasted in, the Library of Congress decided, at the end of the nineteenth century, on a card catalogue, using printed cards. The influence of this decision was far-reaching. Sets of printed cards have been deposited in a number of large libraries. Since 1901 the printed cards have been available on sale to other libraries.

Library of Congress printed cards are now used throughout America and have enormously influenced cataloguing practice in the U.S.A. Not only is the Library of Congress the chief example of centralised cataloguing, it is also an example of co-operative cataloguing, cards being printed from entries supplied by a number of other libraries. The reproduction of the card catalogue in book form by photo mechanical means has extended the catalogue's influence to libraries in other countries.

(3) *The British Museum Rules for Compiling the Catalogues in the Department of Printed Books.*

First published in 1841, after being approved by the Trustees in 1839, Panizzi's "91" rules were intended as a code of practice for the "General Catalogue." These rules formed the first thorough code for author entry, and most of its principles are now accepted even though individual rules differ in later codes. Panizzi's rules have been amended by the B.M. from time to time, and further revision in the light of modern cataloguing needs and practice is at the present time under active consideration by the B.M.; but the code is still a standard code widely studied, and as late as 1949 the 2nd ed. of the A.L.A. code refers to it. To some extent, also, the rules influence the choice of heading used in the B.N.B.—anonymous works, for instance.

(4) *Cutter's Rules for a Dictionary Catalogue.*

First printed in 1876, this code included for the first time an outline of cataloguing principles and rules for subject headings. Although primarily intended for a dictionary printed catalogue, these rules form the basis of American card dictionary catalogues, though the rules for author headings have been largely superseded by later codes.

(5) *Linderfelt's Eclectic Card Catalog Rules: Author and Title Entries, 1890.*

This is important partly because of its comparative nature, the rules of the B.M., Cutter, Dewey, Perkins, and others being compared with Dziatzko's and partly because it forms a translation and adaptation of Dziatzko's rules, which have had such a large influence in German cataloguing.

(6) *The American Library Association and Library Association's Cataloguing Rules: Author and Title entries.*

The A.L.A. first published a code of rules in 1883, the L.A. in 1893. From 1900 revision of both codes was in progress in both countries, and from this revision developed a system of joint consultation which resulted in this "Joint Code" which remains the basis of cataloguing in many libraries to-day, par-

ticularly public libraries. A revised American edition has appeared and in England a committee of the L.A. is considering revision for an English edition.

(7) *A.L.A. Cataloguing Rules for Author and Title Entries*, 2nd ed. 1949.

This revision of the American edition of the "Joint Code" was first published in a preliminary edition in 1941. Unfortunately at that time joint consultation between the two countries was not possible. The rules have been expanded to include more comprehensive treatment of maps, music, serials, government documents, etc., and are now grouped systematically. Rules for descriptive cataloguing, included in the 1941 edition, are excluded, in view of the Library of Congress's *Rules for Descriptive Cataloguing*. The number of rules is extensive, however, and their complexity has given rise to a new study of the cataloguing principles they apply,—Seymour Lubetzy's *Cataloguing Rules and Principles*, which may well result in a further revision, and a simpler standard code.

(8) *The use of cards for catalogues*.

Early catalogues, whether printed or manuscript, were in book form as a rule. A suggestion that a library index should be made on cards had been made in France at the end of the 18th century, but it was many years before card catalogues became general practice. The Library of Congress printed cards stimulated the use of cards, and, with the typewriter, encouraged the practice of "unit" cards. During the twentieth century card catalogues became the usual type of catalogue, particularly in America, where the dictionary catalogue is almost universal, but there is a contemporary swing back to the printed book form type of catalogue by a number of English libraries.

(9) *The development of photomechanical means of reproduction during recent years*.

This has enabled such important works as the B.M. catalogue to be reprinted, and the Library of Congress card catalogue to be published in book form. Other libraries are using various means of photo-litho-offset printing to reproduce both catalogues and booklists.

Various adaptations of stencil machines for the reproduction of catalogue cards have stimulated central and co-operative cataloguing; and photography has been adapted to reproduce catalogues for special purposes in America. The influence of microcards on cataloguing is not yet known, but it has been suggested that the cards themselves form the catalogue entry, and the use of microphotography, card, film and print, has necessitated consideration of rules for their treatment.

(10) Finally there is the *British National Bibliography*, 1950-

Centralised cataloguing in Britain now provides a short time after publication a standard catalogue entry complete with Dewey Decimal class number, for the majority of books published in England. Since 1956, printed cards have also been supplied. The subject indexing has set a new standard of indexing in classified catalogues, and the growing awareness in American libraries of the merits of the classified catalogue may be encouraged by this example.

Q.3. *Write brief descriptive notes on FIVE works which are in your opinion essential in a cataloguing room. Language dictionaries, cataloguing codes, subject indexes and classification schemes are not to be included.*

Works regarded as essential in a cataloguing room may be said to form either sources for the catalogue entry—main heading, form of author's name or of other names in the entry (editor, biography) or date of publication, etc.; or sources of information about the subject of the book and which are therefore used in classifying or in assigning subject headings.

Choice is to some extent dependent on the kind of cataloguing practised and the type of material catalogued—"special" library cataloguing obviously requires subject bibliographies limited in scope and unsuitable for general libraries. Full cataloguing of older books means constant reference to such works as the British Museum catalogue; in "short" cataloguing the British Museum catalogue will be little used. The extent to which cataloguing reference books are used by other members of the staff in other departments and by readers affects the choice also, and the personal preference of the cataloguer is not without effect. The following five works are selected as essential for a cataloguing

room dealing both with newly-published books and with older works for a large general library, which gives fairly full cataloguing to all additions.

1. *The British National Bibliography.*

This is so essential a tool of modern cataloguing that it is a little surprising that the question did not exclude it along with codes, classification schemes, indexes, etc. It is a comprehensive work of reference for most material published in England since 1950, providing both cataloguing and subject information. Full authors' names are given for the majority of entries, dates of publication, and subject placings. Added subject entries are indicated and subject headings or index headings are shown both by the headings over the entries and in the monthly indexes. Cumulations are issued each quarter and an annual volume at the end of the year. The entries are arranged in classified order according to the Dewey Decimal Classification (though few if any libraries will wish to use all expanded numbers on the shelves) and there is a full name index. American books which are published in England are also frequently included and a selection of government publications. Maps and music are the main groups of material excluded. Very little reference to other works is needed for books which appear in the B.N.B.

2. *Everyman's Encyclopaedia*, 3rd ed. 1950.

This is a very good "small" encyclopaedia which, while not giving the detailed information of the Britannica or Chambers', is probably more at home in the usually congested confines of a cataloguing department. The atlas volume is an added advantage; 12 volumes of crown octavo size make it a compact work to handle.

3. *A.M. Hyamson's "A Dictionary of Universal Biography of All Ages and All Peoples."*

First published in 1916, there is a 2nd edition published in 1951. Brief biographical entries, on the principle of one line an entry, give full names, dates, occupation. The 2nd edition also indicates in which one of about thirty general biographies fuller information may be found.

Alternatives to Hyamson could be *Webster's Biographical Dictionary* or *The New Century Cyclopedia of Names*. The latter is a three volume work, first published in 1894, later ed. 1954, with an American bias, but in addition to biographies, information is given on names of places, events, literary characters and many other names, in short paragraph form. It is, however, expensive.

Selection of the last two "essential" works from among those desirable is more difficult. The British Museum General Catalogue of Printed books obviously ranks as desirable, but its bulk precludes it from many cataloguing rooms. It would appear to be, rather, a work which should be available for consultation rather than an essential tool. A similar argument would apply to the *Library of Congress Catalogue*, but the *London Library Catalogue* is a useful finding tool, particularly for anonymous works and oriental writers. A good technical dictionary is almost essential—and Chambers' would be useful here. Other works which would be considered essential are *Whitaker's Almanack* (useful for government departments, names of societies, peerage, etc.), *Van Nostrand's Scientific Encyclopaedia* (fuller treatment of scientific information given than Chambers', but more complex, whereas the latter gives word definitions). Any one of these or a large scale atlas, or world gazetteer might be included instead of one of the last two works.

Q.6. *Draft proposed rules for the cataloguing or indexing of modern maps to meet the requirements of a commercial library having to supply detailed information.*

This is the type of question which the examiners, in their comments on the examinations, are wont to say is intended for the candidate who has specialised experience. For that reason it might better have been commented on in these pages by a tutor who had some such specialised experience—however . . .

Before drafting the proposed rules, the candidate has to consider the type of library in question, and make a number of decisions (on which of course he may have preconceived ideas when entering the examination room). First of all one can safely dismiss any idea of entry under cartographer, and the basic rule will need to provide for entry under subject (i.e. region). It is then necessary to decide whether an alphabetical or classified order is to be used. As the

requests are for detailed information, which can usually be supplied by reference to maps of one specific area rather than by consulting a wide range of maps, an alphabetical arrangement will be preferable—it also obviates the need for a subject index. This decision will involve a further one: whether to catalogue a region under its own name (as in the British Museum Rules), or to refer it to the widest possible geographical division (as in Cutter and the Library of Congress). The latter arrangement has the advantage of grouping together maps on related areas, while at the same time retaining an alphabetical arrangement which is simpler to use than a classified arrangement. A region index will probably be necessary.

Yet another decision has to be made—this time on the question of subject in the case of geological, climatic, railway maps, etc. Is it sufficient to add the subject after the regional heading, or should additional subject entries be provided? It has been suggested that a catalogue with subject entries is of more use to specialists, but usually information will be required on a special aspect of one region, e.g. Railways of France, and subject sub-division of regions will adequately provide for such enquiries. It is doubtful whether the value of the multiplicity of entries which will result from a decision to enter under subject as well as region will justify the time and expense involved in making them, even in a library of this type.

Under each heading I would suggest a chronological arrangement, with the most recent map first.

These problems, and the reasons behind the decisions taken, will not of course be included in the answer, but the draft rules will depend on them. Rules for descriptive cataloguing, e.g. title, scale, edition, size, place of publication and publisher, and date, will also be necessary.

The draft rules may well be on the following lines:—

1. *Main entry.* The main entry for each map is to be made under the region delineated.
2. *Heading.* The heading is to consist of the largest geographical division in which the area covered by the map is situated, sub-divided as necessary, e.g. Asia—India—Calcutta.
3. *Sub-division by subject.* Maps dealing with a special subject, e.g. climate, geology, railways, etc., shall be entered under the heading as in Rule 2 above, with subject sub-division. e.g. Asia—India—Climate.
4. *Title.* The title is to be given as on the map itself, but it should be augmented if necessary to indicate the exact subject of the map. If no title is given, one is to be supplied.
5. *Scale.* Scale is to be given in the form 1: 63360, etc. [The collection will probably contain a number of continental maps, which use this means of indicating scale.]
6. *Edition.* Details of edition are to be given where necessary.
7. *Size.* Size is to be given in inches, from top to bottom and across, the innermost borderlines being taken as the limits.
8. *Imprint.* The place of publication and the publisher's name are to be given when readily ascertainable.
The date is always to be given. Where no date is given on the map itself, an approximate one is to be supplied. If the date of survey differs from the date of publication, this should be stated.
9. *Series.* If the map is one of a series, the name of the series is to be given.
10. *Sheet number.* If there is a sheet number, as in the case of Ordnance Survey maps, etc., this is to be given.
11. *Notes.* Any additional information which is considered important may be given in the form of a note.
12. *Rules of arrangement.*
 - A. General maps and atlases.
 - B. General maps of special subjects.
 - C. Maps of continents, in alphabetical order.
 - D. The maps of each continent shall be followed first by maps of regions contained in it, e.g. South-East Asia, arranged alphabetically.
 - E. These shall be followed by maps of each country contained in the continent, arranged alphabetically.

- F. The maps of each country shall be followed by maps of those counties, states, etc. which form part of it.
- G. Maps of counties, states, etc. shall be followed by maps of cities, towns, etc. contained in them.
- H. General maps of a particular region shall be followed by maps dealing with the special aspects of that region, e.g. Canals, Climate, Geology, Railways, etc.
- I. Arrangement under each heading shall be chronological, with the most recent map first.

Q.8. *What are the main exceptions to the general rule for institutions in the A.A. Code? How far are these justified?*

In the A.A. Code, there are a number of exceptions to the general rule that institutions should be entered under the name of the place in which they are located.

The main class of exceptions is governed by the principle underlying the rule for those institutions with names beginning with a proper noun or adjective, and therefore distinctive. Such institutions, directs this rule, should not be entered under the place where they are located, but where most people are likely to look, and that is under the first part of their names.

John Carroll University, Cleveland.

Refer from Cleveland. John Carroll University.

There are, however, exceptions to the exceptions (churches, monasteries, Carnegie libraries, etc.) which actually involve reversion to the original rule and may therefore be justifiably considered outside the scope of this question.

Another class of exceptions is governed by the important rule for national institutions, which directs that such institutions, often called Imperial, Royal and National, which include in their names the name of the country, are to be entered under the name of the country.

Wales, National Library. *Aberystwyth.*

Refer from Aberystwyth. National Library of Wales.

In this section of the code, there is also a body of rules governed by the principle that parts of an institution should be entered under the whole. Thus colleges and schools forming part of a university are entered under the name of the university of which they are a part. In the same way, university libraries, museums and any other subordinate departments are entered under the name of the University. The same principle is adhered to in the case of private collections of say books, coins or pictures, which would normally be entered under the name of their owner, but, if passed into the possession of an institution, must be entered under the name of the institution. So must botanical and zoological gardens, and observatories, which would normally be entered under the name of their place of location, if they are part of an institution.

Oxford University, Balliol College.

Refer from Balliol College, Oxford.

This concludes the survey of the main exceptions. There are others, but they are concerned mainly with American institutions.

How far are these exceptions justified? The general rule that entry should be made under the place of location of the institution is simple and straightforward. That there is some doubt about the advisability of the main exception to this general rule (that is that institutions whose names begin with a proper noun or adjective should be entered under their names) is clearly indicated by the two modifications printed in the code after it. The first modification suggests that the scope of the exception might be *extended* to include all institutions with distinctive names, the second suggests that the scope might be *limited* to making it apply only to institutions in the British Commonwealth and the United States of America.

Further indications of unhappiness on the part of the rule makers is shown by the exceptions to the exception in the case of churches and other institutions, which are always entered under the provisions of the general rule.

The principle underlying these exceptions is one that often occurs in the Code, and that is to enter under the form most likely to be looked under. The problems are firstly, who knows what form most people will look under, and secondly, how far is one justified in complicating the rule?

Another factor to be taken into consideration here is that stricter adherence to the general rule would bring the A.A. Code more in line with other codes of rules.

The rule outlined above for national institutions is a further unnecessary complication. Is a reader looking for a publication issued by the National Library of Wales going to look in the catalogue under "National," "Aberystwyth" or "Wales." If there is an element of doubt, and I consider there is, would it not be better to keep to the general rule?

In deciding how far the above exceptions are justified, it is as well to bear in mind that every exception to a general rule is a complication, and is, therefore, to be avoided unless there is a very good reason for it. In my opinion, the A.A. Code would be improved by the elimination of some of the above exceptions, and by a stricter adherence to the general rule.

Q.9. *What changes would you advocate in the A.A. Code rules for the treatment of imprint and collation? Justify any omissions and additions you may propose*

This question was obviously set to discover whether the candidate had thought for himself, and not merely learned the Code parrot-fashion, although it does of course require a thorough knowledge of the rules. There can be no definite answer to such a question—it is a subject upon which opinions differ considerably. The importance lies not so much in the candidate's opinions—although they must naturally be within the bounds of common-sense and practicability—but in the arguments put forward in support of them. Well-reasoned arguments which show that the candidate has thought carefully about the rules will bring good marks, even if the examiners are not entirely in agreement with the opinions expressed.

In each case the A.A. Code rules should be stated clearly, and then dealt with point by point.

First of all, Imprint. There is probably less need for revision here than in the rules for Collation. Provision could be made for omitting place of publication, except for books published outside Great Britain (in the United States of course it would be outside the U.S.). An abbreviated form of publisher's name might be permitted, e.g. Oxford U.P., and the omission of & Co., Ltd., Inc., etc. The rules for date might make provision for giving the original date of publication (when known) for a book which has been reissued without revision.

The rules for Collation offer rather more scope for revision, and here the student who has read Piggott's *Cataloguing Principles and Practice* will be at an advantage, for the questionnaire sent out for this inquiry included a question on the use made of the items of collation in a catalogue entry. Many libraries in these days give only a bare minimum of collation, and there is much to be said in favour of short or simplified cataloguing. In many cases detailed collation is unnecessary, and it may be possible that, apart from stating the number of volumes if more than one, it is necessary at all in cataloguing for lending libraries. This view is probably not generally shared, and may well be rather too extreme for the examiners.

If some collation is to be retained, I would suggest pagination, which does give some rough indication of the scope of the book, and a less detailed account of illustrations. I can see no reason for giving size, but in the case of books which are too large to be housed on the general shelves, some indication must be given on the catalogue entry. I would suggest that if it is ever necessary to give size, it should be in inches rather than centimetres. It is much easier to visualise 9 ins. than 22 cm. With regard to illustrations, it is generally held that it is useful to mention maps in geographical works, and plans, tables and diagrams in technical books, but how many such books do in fact appear *without* them? Frontispiece, photographs and facsimiles seem quite superfluous, and the term *illus.* of itself means little. Plates may sometimes be useful—particularly if they are coloured—and if any indication of plates is to be given, it would be desirable to state when this is the case. Is it necessary, however, to state the number of plates, or to indicate illustrations in the text? Bibliographies are not at present included in the collation, but if they are worthy of mention, I feel they would be better included there rather than in a note. But are the short reading lists, sometimes found at the end of each chapter, which we usually list as bibliographies, really worthy of the name?

In view of the differences of opinion, and the need to provide rules to suit different types of library, is there something to be said for making the rules "permissive," or of returning to Cutter's idea of making provision for short, medium and full cataloguing? Another point which might be considered is whether the production of printed cards by the B.N.B., and the already widespread practice of duplicating catalogue entries on the unit principle, make the economies of omitting or simplifying imprint and collation worthwhile. Would it perhaps be better to omit certain items and to elaborate the others to make them more readily understandable to the average reader?

These opinions are, as I have already said, purely personal, but they do, I think, cover the main points that should have been in the mind of the candidate, and may perhaps provoke future victims to give some thought as to how they would answer a question of this nature.

PRACTICAL CLASSIFICATION AND CATALOGUING

GENERAL COMMENTS.

1. A fair paper; the only unusual feature was the number of added subject entries necessary. Usually, thorough indexing can make these superfluous.

2. Capitalisation, etc., in the following examples are strictly according to the 1908 Code; names of publishers are given exactly as found on title-page. Consistency is more easily achieved in this way. But students should know that examiners are fairly tolerant in accepting modifications of this practice.

3. For the first three titles, chain indexing is advised. Although, apparently, examiners do not attach many (if any) marks to the index entries for the more general heads, these often provide, even for the narrow requirements of examination cataloguing, valuable key words or signposts to the specific subject (e.g., Elections, or Politics in Q.2) and should not be omitted. A vital function of the index entries (and of the subject headings and references in the DC) is to lead enquirers from *all* terms likely to be consulted by them when searching for a subject. Parts of entries which candidates would underline have been printed in italics.

Q.1.

Classified file.

1. 387.

Harnack, Edwin P. , editor.

All about ships and shipping: a handbook of popular nautical information. . . . Edited by Edwin P. Harnack. 9th ed. . . . rev. . . . London, Faber and Faber limited, 1952.

xii, 707 p. col. front., illus., 33 col. pl., plans, tables, diagrs, 14 cm.

Coloured chart on endpaper. Illustrations include several hundred national, house and signal flags, funnels, and ship silhouettes.

Information ranges from ship construction and navigation to maritime societies and coastguard services. Gives lists of ships of British and foreign navies and of principal shipping companies.

2. 359.

Harnack, Edwin P. , editor.

All about ships and shipping: a handbook of popular nautical information. 9th ed. rev. 1952.

Shelved at 387

387

Author and title index.

3. Harnack, Edwin P., , editor.

All about ships and shipping: a handbook of popular nautical information. 9th ed. rev. 1952.

387

Subject index (using chain procedure).

Shipping: Commerce	387
Transport: Commerce	385/388
Communications: Commerce	380
Commerce	380
Naval forces	359
Administration: Political science	350

COMMENTS.

1. The chief problem is one typical in such classifications as Dewey, which scatter the various aspects of a subject like Ships and Shipping, when faced with a comprehensive book on that subject. However, 387 clearly covers most major aspects, except 359 (hence the added entry); the mention of ship construction (623) and certain operational factors (656) does not seem to justify more added entries.

2. *Suggested class nos. in other schemes:* BC: TNS + Added entries RN and UK—LC: HE573 + Added entry VA40 and VK155—SC: B650 (to be indexed as "Ships and shipping") + Added entry B806—UDC 387 + Added entry 359.

Q.2.

Classified file.

1. 328.42.

The Times.

House of commons, 1951. With full results of the polling, biographies of members and unsuccessful candidates, photographs of all members, and a complete analysis, statistical tables, and a map of the General Election, October, 1951. London. The Times office [1951?]

256p. ports., maps, tables. 23½ cm.

Includes complete list of members of the Government—Cabinet ministers and ministers not in the Cabinet.

2. 324.42.

The Times.

House of commons, 1951. With full results of the polling, biographies of members and unsuccessful candidates, photographs of all members, and a complete analysis, statistical tables, and a map of the General Election, October, 1951. [1951?]

Shelved at 328.42.

Author and title index.

3. The Times.

House of Commons, 1951. With full results of the polling, biographies of members and unsuccessful candidates, photographs of all members, and a complete analysis, statistical tables, and a map of the General Election, October, 1951. [1951?] 328.42

Subject index (using chain procedure).

Members of Parliament	328.42
House of Commons <i>see</i> Great Britain. <i>House of Commons</i>	
Commons, House of <i>see</i> Great Britain. <i>House of Commons</i>	
Great Britain. <i>House of Commons</i>	328.42
Parliament <i>see</i> Great Britain. <i>Parliament</i>	
Great Britain. <i>Parliament</i>	328.42
Great Britain: Legislation	328.42
Legislation: Political science	328
Political science	320
Politics	320
General elections: Great Britain	324.42
Parliamentary elections: Great Britain	324.42
Great Britain: Elections	324.42
Elections: Political science	324

COMMENTS.

1. In annotation, this is a clear demonstration of the basic rule—nothing in annotation should merely repeat what is explicit or implicit in title description or any other part of the entry.

2. Owing to the separation in Dewey of Elections as a subject from legislation (of which Elections is clearly a subordinate "Problem") two subject entries are necessary if both approaches (Parliament, Commons, etc. as well as General Election, Elections, etc.) are to be covered.

3. Main entry should be under House of Commons since this is the thing affected. Merrills (and Ranganathan's) rule about the influence of one thing on another is one of the most ubiquitous and useful in practical classification.

4. If any students chose such numbers as 324.26 Election results or 328.32

Lower house, they had the wrong facets. The most important facet (the "Personality" to those who have read Palmer and Wells) in 324 and 328 is the country facet; it is clearly unhelpful to collocate this book with books on, say, elections to the American House of representatives, simply because they both refer to lower houses.

5. A trap for the unwary is the style of index entry for House of Commons and for Parliament. Both these are *persons* (albeit corporate persons) and so that entries by and about them will file together in a combined Author and Subject index the style of heading must be the same when subject (as here) as when author. Hence, Great Britain. *Parliament* with reference from Parliament. This rule applies to subject headings in a dictionary catalogue also, of course.

6. *Suggested class nos. in other schemes*: BC: RdeAB or RDeaBL (deriving further details from RE) + Added entry RDeaYE—LC: JN503 + Added entry JN955—SC: L311 + Added entry L280V572—UDC: 328(410) + Added entry 324(410).

Q.3.

Classified file.

1. 323.4.

Caritat, Marie-Jean-Antoine-Nicolas, *marquis de Condorcet*.

[L'esquisse d'un tableau historique des progrès de l'esprit humain].

... Sketch for a historical picture of the progress of the human mind; translated by June Barraclough, with an introduction by Stuart Hampshire. London, Weidenfeld and Nicolson, [1955].

xvi, 202 p. 17½ cm. (Added t.p.: Library of ideas [ed. by] Isaiah Berlin, Stuart Hampshire, Richard Wolheim).

At head of title: Antoine-Nicolas de Condorcet.

Bibliography.

First published by the French Republic at its own expenses in the Year III (1795). The only previous English translation also appeared, anonymously, in 1795.

Traces the progress of liberal democracy and human rights and sees their gradual victory over error, prejudice and superstition.

Author and title index.

2. Caritat, Marie-Jean-Antoine-Nicolas, *marquis de Condorcet*.

[L'esquisse d'un tableau historique des progrès de l'esprit humain].

Sketch for a historical picture of the progress of the human mind; translated by June Barraclough, with an introduction by Stuart Hampshire. [1955]. (Library of ideas). 323.4

3. Condorcet, Marie-Jean-Antoine-Nicolas Caritat, *marquis de*, see Caritat, Marie-Jean-Antoine-Nicolas, *marquis de Condorcet*.

4. Barraclough, June, *translator*.

see Caritat, Marie-Jean-Antoine-Nicolas, *marquis de Condorcet*.

[L'esquisse d'un tableau historique des progrès de l'esprit humain].

5. Hampshire, Stuart, *editor*.

see Caritat, Marie-Jean-Antoine-Nicolas, *marquis de Condorcet*.

[L'esquisse d'un tableau historique des progrès de l'esprit humain].

6. Library of ideas, *edited by* Isaiah Berlin and others.

Caritat, Marie-Jean-Antoine-Nicolas, *marquis de Condorcet*.

[L'esquisse d'un tableau historique des progrès de l'esprit humain].

Sketch for a historical picture of the progress of the human mind; translated by June Barraclough, with an introduction by Stuart Hampshire. [1955]. (Library of ideas) 323.4

7. Berlin, Isaiah, *editor* see Library of ideas, *edited by* Isaiah Berlin and others.

8. Hampshire, Stuart, *editor*.

see Library of ideas, *edited by* Isaiah Berlin and others.

9. Wolheim, Richard, *editor*.

see Library of ideas, *edited by* Isaiah Berlin and others.

Subject index (using chain procedure).

Democracy and human rights: Political science 323.4

Human rights: Political science	323.4
Rights, Human: Political science	323.4
Individual and State: Political science	323.4
State and individual	323.4
Political science	320

COMMENTS.

1. Students who follow the American rule for noblemen should make it clear to the examiner.

2. The insertion under the author heading of the original title as a "conventional title" ensures that all editions of the same work file together.

3. If the author's name is omitted from title description, as here, yet differs significantly from the form used in the heading, the discrepancy should be clarified by the "At head of title" note.

4. The Code gives no authority for naming the editors in the series note. But it is entirely consistent with the idea of full description in a main entry.

5. Series editions should always be given references, not added entries, which are absurdly extravagant.

6. In subject work the main problem is whether to place it under history of civilization (901) or under the more restricted theme implied by the transcript notes: "traces . . . progress of liberal democracy, establishes the rights of humanity . . ." Merrill's ruling, that a general subject treated with special reference to a part of that subject should go under the narrower subject, seems to apply here. Also, the fact that the author is a philosopher and the series a "Library of ideas," together with the general preference in Dewey for subordinating special history with its subject rather than putting it under general history suggests the latter, too. An added entry under 321.8 Democracy would also be justified—but the theory of human rights is wider than democracy and the index can cover the approach via this term.

7. Any students classifying this book at 194.9 (French philosophers) are classifying the author, not the subject—a common error in practical classification.

8. *Suggested class nos. in other schemes:* BC: RAG or LGC—LC: JC571 or CB27—SC: L021 or Ooo3—UDC: 342.7 or 930.85.

Q.4. *Main entry.*

1. Fisher, James, *editor*.

. . . Birds and beasts; edited by James Fisher and painted (in collaboration with Rowland Hilder) by Maurice Wilson. London, Phoenix house, ltd. [195 ?].

[48] p. col. illus., diags. 28 cm. (Shell nature studies).

Outline key diagrams accompany each illustration.

Emphasis is on the identification of birds, with brief notes on their habits, the countryside where they live, their food and animal companions. 598.2

Added entries and references (Author and title).

2. Hilder, Rowland, *illustrator* *see* Fisher, James, *editor*.

Birds and beasts . . .

2. Wilson, Maurice, *illustrator* *see* Fisher, James, *editor*.

Birds and beasts . . .

4. Shell nature studies.

Fisher, James, *editor*.

Birds and beasts; painted (in collaboration with Rowland Hilder) by Maurice Wilson. [195 ?]. 598.2

Added entries and references (subject).

5. Birds.

[entry as for 4]

Vertebrates	<i>see also</i>	Birds
Ornithology	<i>see</i>	Birds
Animals	<i>see also</i>	Birds
Zoology	<i>see also</i>	Birds
Beasts	<i>see</i>	Animals

COMMENTS.

1. A straightforward title. Another example of the Merrill rule cited after Q.3—so enter under Birds rather than Animals.

2. No mention is made of the birds being British, and students shouldn't assume this.

3. The linking references in Sears are straightforward. But the title gives a keyword (Beasts) which also needs to be incorporated.

4. *Suggested class nos. in other schemes:* BC: GX—LC: QL674—SC: F600—UDC: 598.2.

Q.5.

Main entry.

1. India. *Information and broadcasting. Ministry of.*

The eighth year. [] Ministry of information and broadcasting. Publications division, 1955.
[vi.] 3—234 p. 20½ cm.

Outlines the major achievements of the Central and State governments between April 1944 and March 1955, both in internal social and economic activities and in external affairs. 354.4

Added entries and references (Author and title).

2. Information and broadcasting, Ministry of, India.
see India. *Information and broadcasting, Ministry of.*

Added entries and references (subject).

3. India—Politics and government.
4. India—Government see India—Politics and government.
5. India—History, Political see India—Politics and government.
6. Government.

For the government of an individual country, state, etc., see name of country or state with the sub-division *Politics and government*, e.g., India—Politics and government.

7. Political science see also names of countries with the sub-divisions *Constitution and Politics and government*, e.g., India—Politics and government.
8. Politics, Practical see also names of countries, cities, etc., with the sub-division *Politics and government*, e.g., India—Politics and government.

COMMENTS.

1. Straightforward. The references in Sears are to be found, of course, under U.S.

2. Any student classifying this at 342.54 Constitution of India is confusing constitutional structure with the administrative actions of the government.

3. History of India, 954, is too wide here. This deals quite specifically with one particular aspect of Indian Institutions.

4. *Suggested class nos. in other schemes:* BC: RDqG, U or RHqU or (if subordinated to Social-Political history) ON,B,U—LC: JQ226—SC: L295P683—UDC: 354(54) "1954/5."

Postscript

I notice that on page vi of the *Examination Supplement of the Assistant Librarian* for September, 1956, that a "model" definition of the word *glossary* appears as follows:—"A list of unusual or special words used in a book. It may appear at the front or back of the volume. It is not to be confused with an index." And that is all.

This definition is incomplete and should fail a student on this section of the question. According to the O.E.D. a glossary is, "A collection of glosses, list and *explanations*, of abstruse, obsolete, etc., terms, partial dictionary." The whole point of a gloss is that it comments, explains and defines. The physical arrangement of the words in a list, alphabetically otherwise, is purely for convenient reference.

DOROTHEA SCOTT, Hong Kong University Library.

Pass Percentage

By E. F. Ferry

THE Library Association, by its Charter, is an examining body, and as such is charged with the task of maintaining minimum standards of qualification for members of the profession. Not unnaturally, the Association's examiners are frequently subject to criticism based upon the number of failures in each examination. As candidates continue to submit themselves to test twice a year, it is perhaps, advisable to enquire into the causes of failure and, *ipso facto*, of the criticisms.

The obvious reason for failure is lack of ability to muster sufficient marks, a trite but true statement. Several factors contribute to this state of affairs but it is as well to state at the outset that (a) examiners are disinterested persons as far as the (to them) anonymous candidates are concerned; their interest lies solely in standards; (b) all candidates are assured of receiving the most careful consideration *if their scripts warrant it*. There are, of course, obvious failures, but there are also those who, for a variety of reasons, fail to satisfy the examiner entirely but raise sufficient doubts in his mind to justify a second or even a third scrutiny. Senior examiners are there to give the second scrutiny, and if doubt still remains, the subject assessors consider the scripts for the third time. Marking standards are set at meetings of examiners, and in any case assessors make sample checks of marked papers. It is difficult, therefore, to find any valid reason for laying the blame for a distressingly low percentage at the examiners' doors. It may well be that the candidates themselves must bear a considerable load of responsibility, and it is this aspect which it is proposed to investigate.

Some will find difficulties in passing examinations however well prepared they may be—nerves may play a shattering part in this, and to those so afflicted we can only offer sympathy and the thought that adequate preparation gives sufficient background to see anybody over the appropriate obstacle. Failure to prepare oneself for an examination invites trouble, of course, and those incredible papers which can muster fewer than thirty marks for six answers ("ducks" have been known) are beyond the scope of this article. Such candidates are either foolhardy, foolish, or "tuition proof."

A recent issue of the "Journal of Education" paid considerable attention to the teaching of English in schools, so, as words are the vehicles of examinees' knowledge, it may be well to pay heed to the lamentations of this periodical. Plain English, Clear Expression, Straight Thinking, Good Communication were some of the headings under which the matter was discussed. They apply equally to our own examinations. A contributor alleges that the trouble begins at the "eleven plus" stage, continues through to further education and is the result of a misplaced emphasis on the type of question which calls for a slick, telephonic type of answer. This may well be, but anyone who works among books should be able to imbibe sufficient style to offset any shortcomings resulting from primary and secondary education. In all Library Association examinations, style, spelling and grammar are taken into account in marking. It is therefore distressing to note the comment of one Final examiner in English literature that some scripts submitted were, in his opinion, below G.C.E. standard. Candidates are expected to write good

English, and it follows that practice in written work is essential. This is one of the reasons why so many correspondence course tutors feel strongly that the mere sending of a course is not enough, and that answers to questions are a most important part of the course. Such an argument is borne out by at least one statement from an examiner which reads, "Many entrants have enough factual knowledge to pass the examinations comfortably if only they would shape their knowledge into the form required by the question and would write at adequate length." Again, from another examiner we learn that "I feel that some candidates must know more than they show in these answers, but the manner of presentation conceals the knowledge so effectively as to invite failure."

Two or three points arise from these two statements. First of all, "write at adequate length" does *not* mean padding, which merely tires and irritates the examiner. It cannot conceal lack of knowledge, and it may well lead to further error. The statement simply calls for as full and lucid an answer to a question as can be expected in the time allowed. Secondly, "the form required by the question"—here we have yet another version of a general complaint. Too many candidates fail to answer the question as set. A detailed account of the A.A. code of 1908 is not an answer to a question on the A.L.A. rules of 1949, but the mistake has been made often enough. Definitions where full answers were called for, and vice versa, are not unknown. Some candidates answer the wrong number of questions in a sectionalized paper, others number the questions wrongly. Failure to complete the necessary number of answers may be due to slowness or lack of knowledge, but it is also undoubtedly due to a tendency on the part of some candidates to enjoy themselves on a familiar question far beyond the time allowed.

To sum up this paragraph then:—

- (1) Read the instructions at the head of the paper.
- (2) Answer the questions as set.
- (3) Read through the paper, marking the obvious questions to tackle, and noting *at once* any stray facts which may apply to other questions.
- (4) Note *not only* the subject of the question, but also the angle from which the subject is to be approached.
- (5) In multi-part questions, make sure that the right number of parts is tackled.
- (6) Leave a little time to re-read answers.
- (7) Do not pad, or drown facts in irrelevancies.

So far, I have dealt with what might be called the mechanics of the matter. The subjects of the L.A. examinations are too diverse to deal with individually, but several themes recur throughout the whole range. The first which comes to mind is a lament for the lack of general knowledge. This appears to show in those questions which call for examples of books known to the candidate. Some of the examples are, to put it politely, weak. Candidates at all levels must realise that if they are to become professional librarians, they must work at the job. The examination syllabus is a framework—a skeleton, if you like, or a model, if you do not—and it is up to the candidate to clothe it with knowledge. Factual knowledge gained in courses of study goes part of the way, but general knowledge must complete the journey. Awareness of current affairs, reading knowledge of current and past authors, acquaintance with a wider range of professional periodicals than the

usual five—these should be part of a librarian's life, not merely part of an examination course.

It is this lack of background knowledge which probably gave rise to the following outburst in an examiner's report—"vagueness, triteness, laziness of response to the particular question, insufficient factual knowledge, mechanical repetition of text-book opinion." Quite a calendar, and one which applies to more than one candidate. Read as widely as possible. There should be sufficient opportunity in any library to maintain a reasonable standard of general knowledge in its widest sense.

Local pride is a thing to be commended but anyone who has read the McColvin report or who has visited many libraries on his travels must realise that library provision in this country varies a great deal from place to place. Candidates would be well-advised not to regard their own libraries as typical, or as embodying all that should be done in librarianship. A question calling for a description of local practice may be answered quickly and confidently, but to quote that practice (acknowledged or anonymous) in an answer to a general question is asking for trouble. The examination syllabus calls for the ideal—most of our libraries fall short of it in one way or another. It follows, therefore, that assistants should build up a composite picture as far as possible by travelling outside the walls of their own libraries. Lessons should be combined with experience.

The Library Association, in its wisdom, has decreed that nobody shall be admitted to the register before the age of 23, including three years' experience in an approved library. It follows, therefore, that premature rushing into examinations is not only rash but unprofitable. I must speak generally here, knowing full well that there are assistants capable of becoming Fellows at the age of 21 if necessary, but there are many who are entering far too early. As in all professions, there is a language in librarianship which must be mastered before a person can move easily in his particular job. Assistants would be well-advised to learn this professional language before plunging into the First Professional Examination. The same applies at Registration level. Over-eagerness to qualify can bring disappointment, frustration and eventual dissatisfaction with a profession which really has many attractions. Entry without adequate preparation or experience wastes the candidate's, tutor's and examiner's time. It is chancy, to say the least, to select parts of the syllabus and to concentrate upon those parts in the hope that some sort of mental telepathy will link the thought processes of examiner and examinee, just as it is inviting trouble to attack the Winter examinations after a Summer failure without pondering on the cause of failure and revising thoroughly.

Other causes of failure could be cited—a fine summer, an energetic social life, even development of interest in the opposite sex. These are very well in their place, but deviation from a set course of study must reduce the chances of success. The Register and Examinations Executive Committee is truly concerned about the low pass percentage in its examinations and it does *not* lay down the number of candidates who should pass. This has been suggested off the record and, no doubt, in a fit of spleen, but the barrier between success and failure can only be removed by the candidates themselves. Reasonable knowledge of a subject and an ability to express that knowledge in a sensible, coherent way are all that are asked for. Master these two, and we shall no longer deplore the pass percentage.

III

BIBLIOGRAPHY AND ASSISTANCE TO READERS

Tutors' comments edited by:

E. F. Ferry

BELIEVING in the adage that no news is good news, we continue in the way of concentrating upon a narrow field in the absence of adverse criticism. This is not mental laziness, but the result of a conviction that it is better to give fuller treatment to a few subjects than to nibble at the greater part of the examinations. This time, books come under the microscope—their exteriors in bibliography, their interiors in book selection and assistance to readers. The range of contributors has again been widened to include correspondence course tutors, lecturers and at least one practising specialist. As far as possible, factual questions have been ignored as students can check these for themselves.

The bibliographical side of the L.A. syllabus is becoming an increasingly difficult one to cover. New techniques arrive regularly, reference books and standard texts are revised, replaced and augmented far too often for the student's peace of mind, cherished theories in historical bibliography are subjected to critical bombardment (i.e., knocked for six). To crown all, we have the prospect of a major revision of the examination syllabus. However, students will, no doubt, continue bloody but bowed. Of all subjects, B4 and 5 are perhaps the most testing in that it is more than desirable that there should be some first-hand acquaintance with processes and books. The mere sight of a microtext, a paper-mill, a lino slug or a new edition of an encyclopaedia can do far more good than hours of reading. Field work is most important and any doubts raised by our contributors should be investigated with this in mind.

Once more, we have to thank those who have supplied material for this issue and who, fortunately, need not remain anonymous. They include Messrs. S. Barton, A. Chapman, N. E. Dain, R. E. Grimshaw, W. A. Smith and E. A. Willats.

REGISTRATION B.IV : BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Q.1. *You are compiling an extensive list of incunabula. What form of arrangement would you adopt, and what would be the nature of the normal entry in this list?*

The use of the word "list" in a question on documents associated with scholarly purposes is not satisfactory. It may be understood that a catalogue of one collection is wanted or equally well that an index of one or more collections is concerned. Neither may be in mind. Without limiting the terms the production of a standard bibliography may be the purpose for compiling the list. The kind of arrangement and the "normal" entry are relative to the purpose and character of the compilation. Such a lack of definition does not lead to the best work of students, nor accord with the precise standards expected of a profession.

If it is assumed that "list" means "check-list" a work comparable with the *Finding list of early English books to 1640 in libraries of the British Isles*, compiled by D. Ramage, or with W. W. Bishop's *A checklist of American copies of S.T.C. books* would be in question. Such a list need provide only titles of works or editions which are not in the S.T.C. while quoting for S.T.C. titles either

brief indentificatory headings (author, main word or words of title, date, or place) and S.T.C. numbers or solely S.T.C. numbers. Any more would be wasteful.

If a standard bibliography is in mind (an extensive list may be a basis for one) full descriptive entries will be required for any items which are not discoverable in one of the more widely available bibliographies or catalogues, while short entries will be suited to items described in the latter. In the last case reference numbers from the full descriptions as available elsewhere should be included. Some such method is illustrated in the catalogue of Cambridge University incunabula.

A library catalogue such as *Books printed abroad in languages other than English before 1700 and now in Bristol Reference Library*, may have a lesser purpose than that of a standard bibliography. It may be used as a guide to the collection for direct use when the books may be handled. A full description would not in such a case be a "normal" entry which would be made to enumerate the titles and editions, to refer to full descriptions, and to point to such features as provenance, significant variants, deficiencies, additions, and supposed binders. In that respect the Bristol list is far from "normal" or ideal. Notes on ownership are particularly significant because *adversaria* and inscriptions may throw light on the use of the work, or contemporary opinion on the subject, while the establishment of former ownership may provide evidence of sources of the owners' own writings.

In carrying out the practical work involved the most minute comparison of items for the list with full descriptions of other copies must be made as the title may cover many printers' variants or even author's revisions within the same printing during that age which provided foundations for modern scholarship. A variant copy needs notes on all known differences. The reasons for variants may be accidental or purposeful and no chances should be taken of obscuring data which may assume new significance in the hands of the scholar. Different editions of incunabula nearly always justify the provision of full descriptions.

Arrangement may be intended to show the evolution of printing and the growth of scholarship, when it may be based on Maittaire, Bradshaw, and Proctor (the latter did not invent Proctor Order). It may be intended to further the recording of a national literature of an early period when the order might be that of an outstanding bibliography—probably simply by authors or dates.

A classified arrangement is not appropriate unless the works fall into distinctive groups. Such a grouping might be more useful than Proctor Order for a comprehensive national survey of incunabula, but the vague terms of the question do not allow more than surmise to be made. If the materials were sufficiently extensive such distinctive groups as collected royal decrees, European and Oriental romances, scientific books, service books, bibles, devotional and philosophic works, and classical literature might be more informative and practically useful than Proctor Order, or date order.

- Q. 6. *What is the present position concerning private press production in Britain? Briefly and critically describe the work, SINCE 1945, of any private press with which you are familiar, or list FIVE pre-war private presses and name ONE important work issued by EACH.*

Whilst a comparison between the two stages of Private Press work is not specifically asked for, candidates would be expected to make, at least, a brief examination of this point. The Press work of to-day has changed considerably both in importance and value, serving now purely as a means of personal satisfaction at the hands of the owner of the Press, with no formulated desire to influence either typography or book design as such. Types used are invariably those available from the stocks of the commercial printing houses who, in most cases, carry out the actual machining of the texts, the influence of the individual being confined, with certain exceptions, to the type-setting and lay-out as well as the ultimate binding of the book.

One of these exceptions is the *Golden Cockerel Press*, and this Press stands pre-eminent in this field to-day. No special types have been designed or cast for them, the ordinary commercial Monotype, in a face most suited to the work

in hand being used. The type, after being cast, is re-assembled by hand, in order to achieve the precision and detail of justification required by this Press. Their actual productions are confined to selected books, not always of a popular nature, but yet of merit, which after being set up, are machined slowly and carefully, with frequent stoppages for checking the printed pages. Equal care is taken in the choice of illustrations, in the editorship of their texts, resulting in a work of scholarship and beauty.

Of the modern presses, the peak period was just after the last war, when over twelve private printing presses were in operation; despite this, less than one hundred books have been issued by them. Information about these presses has to be sought for, and is completely factual, so that candidates not possessing this definite information could not have answered this part of the question.

No one factor has had a greater influence on the value of the modern Private Press work than that of the multiple production of books. During the age of Morris and his contemporaries, the issue of many copies of certain books was encouraged. To-day, no such thing can be accomplished, as the whole of the energies and resources of these Private Presses are concentrated on the one book, of which perhaps only one copy or at least a very few copies can be printed. This limits quite severely the field over which they are known, and also the amount of commissioned work they are able to undertake.

For those candidates who did attempt this part of the question, there is quite a choice from which to choose. Apart from the *Golden Cockerel Press* and the *Hand and Flower Press*, no other has issued regularly any particular series of books, their whole production being restricted to a single book, or a projected series of which only a very few have been actually issued; an instance of this being James Guthrie's edition of Blake's "Song of Innocence," of which only eighteen copies out of an edition of two hundred copies were completed, due entirely to the extremely fastidious and painstaking methods he employed over each separate volume. Financial reward took no part in this stage of the work of the Private Press, nor did the artists look for it. The productions of the *Hand and Flower Press* are probably the best known Private Press books to-day, as they are distributed freely to many libraries. They are neat volumes, admirably suited to the purpose they serve.

For specific choice, candidates could number the following among the Presses available for discussion. The *Pear Tree Press* of James Guthrie, set up in Flansham, Sussex; the *Fair Oaks Press* of Ralph Chubb; the *Casque Press* set up in Snowdonia by John Petts; the *Latin Press* of Guido Morris at St. Ives; the important *Hague Press* set up in High Wycombe by Rene Hague and Eric Gill; the *Ditchling Press* in Sussex; F. L. Lewis' press at Leigh-on-Sea; the peculiarly independent *Drake Johnson Press* at Padstow in Cornwall; the important *Hand and Flower Press* established at Aldington in Kent, by Erica Marx; the smaller *Caravell Press* set up by Carl Boirrie in Bloomsbury; the *Rampant Lions Press* of Will Carter at Cambridge, and the two important Presses subsidised by Lord Kemsley, the *Dropmore* and the *Queen Anne Presses*, both established in Bloomsbury; finally, the *Golden Cockerel Press*, which has maintained an unbroken tradition far surpassing any other similar Press.

Q.9. Indicate briefly, with reasons, the purposes for which EACH of the following methods may, in your opinion, legitimately be used: "bleeding," spiral binding, "perfect" binding, loose-leaf binding.

BLEEDING is basically a "display" feature, designed to emphasise, or draw special attention to an illustration, or other feature. In "bleeding," an illustration is run right up to the edges of the paper, and to be correct, should be trimmed on all bled edges. Use of this particular process does materially affect the cost of printing, as it is necessary to use a larger size sheet, with the consequent wastage on the text area and margins. These text and margin proportions cannot be reduced or altered to suit individual cases, and wherever possible, bled illustrations should not be incorporated with text matter, unless this be purely of an advertising nature where a fair amount of licence is expected, but should be allowed to occupy the whole of the page.

This process is very effective if not overdone, and is used especially for

showing off architectural features, machines of similar engineering aspects, and perhaps most effectively for reproduction of works of art. As such illustrations are full-size on rather larger blocks, difficulties arise when a re-print is being issued, as such re-prints are often on a smaller size sheet than was the original; the text matter presents no serious problem, but just how much of this bled illustration is to be cut away in order for it to fit on to this smaller page can make all the difference to the effectiveness of the picture. A great deal of use is made of this process in magazine and periodical display work, in which cases the exact juxtaposition of the text is perhaps not so serious as it might be with a printed book. Used in moderation, it can be a very attractive and effective process.

SPIRAL BINDING.

The great advantage of this method of binding is its flexibility. Books or pamphlets so bound lie perfectly flat when opened, making ease of reference to them. As such, it is ideal for use with time tables, small atlases or maps, guide books, periodicals, books containing tables, formulae or recipes. Where periodical supplements are issued, to be incorporated in an original work, the spiral, which acts on the principle of a loose-leaf binding, can be unwound so that the new issues can be added where necessary. The appearance of this style of binding detracts from its more general use, as far as libraries are concerned, especially as it is impossible to place any shelf mark or guide on the book, except on the front cover, where it is not readily seen. It is a style of binding that lends itself very well to the type of books mentioned, and it should not be too readily condemned because of its physical construction. Means could be found, quite easily, to exploit such books so that their value and use is not lost to libraries. In most cases of books bound by this method, a semi-art or glossy paper is used, strong enough to stand up to the strain imposed upon it; the thinner, poorer quality paper used in many time tables, recipe books and guide books would prevent this method being used, unless the publishers decided upon a change of policy.

PERFECT BINDING.

This is the pre-eminent method of "unsewn binding," and is based on the fact that the book is made up of separate and single sheets of paper and not in sewn sections as with a normally constructed book. The sheets are printed off in the normal manner, and after being assembled in correct order are trimmed along the inner edge, thus removing the folded joints, leaving the book as a collection of single sheets.

This style of binding can legitimately be applied to any type of book printed on an absorbent or semi-absorbent paper. It could not be used successfully on any smooth or art paper, as the success of the method depends entirely on the degree of absorption of the adhesive used. The modern plastic and polyvinyl glues are extremely strong, but just how well any book so bound will withstand library wear and tear will depend not so much on the strength of the adhesive, but on how far it has penetrated between the single sheets. Many books so bound are found to have whole sets of pages falling out, due entirely to the fact that the glue has not got between the pages themselves, so providing an additional strength. The use of this style of binding has become widespread during the last few years, publishers finding it more economical especially for fiction books. Books so bound are of course of no lasting value to a library, because it is not possible to re-bind them when they show signs of wear.

LOOSE-LEAF BINDING.

The application of loose-leaf binding is restricted to two fields of material; firstly to certain types of books; secondly to record and other statistical works. For books, it is used chiefly for quick-reference works, where it is necessary to make daily, weekly or other periodic amendments by the addition of supplements, these to be added to, or incorporated to an original work issued in this form. Works such as *Keesing's Contemporary Archives* is an example of this type of use.

The application of this method to record books, covers many aspects of

value to libraries, namely for sheaf catalogues, accession and stock records, newspaper returns, general accountancy records, and staff records, anything where either a constant building up of information, or the continual addition or withdrawal of material is regularly carried out, leaving the work complete and finished, as it stands. There are various styles of this binding, ranging from spiral or plastic grippers, to thong binders, ring binders, and post binders, each of which has its own advantages, but all providing a rapid and easy method of maintaining frequent changes of information.

REGISTRATION B.V : ASSISTANCE TO READERS

Q.1. *There is a great demand in public libraries for information on holidays at home and abroad. Describe the types of material to be provided for lending and reference, and the sources from which they can be obtained.*

This question will be answered best by the candidate with practical experience in a reference library or information service which sets out to provide information of this type and is participating in the scheme for Tourist Development in the U.K. sponsored by the British Travel and Holidays Association.

The best way in which to answer it would be, I feel, to give an account of the types of material which should be provided and which of these will be available for home reading and which for consultation on the library's premises alone (or can be loaned for a limited period or for a week-end perusal only).

Every type of question likely to be encountered should be met with appropriate material provided, e.g., some people will want to know how to get by boat from London to Glasgow, from whom a launch can be hired to go on the Thames, will it be high or low tide at Southend on a certain day or what is the rate of exchange in relation to the English pound in Austria?

There is far more material for which the library would normally only possess one copy and which could therefore only be consulted on the premises and not taken away.

Into this category would come time-tables. The railway ones should include the *A.B.C. Monthly Railway Guide*, which gives the principal services in "easy-to-understand" form and the *British Railways Regional Guides* and/or *Bradshaw's Railway Guide*. Services to Ireland and Scotland should not be omitted.

For foreign railway travel there is *Cook's Continental Time-table* (which is particularly useful for giving, under "Foreign Moneys," the monthly average rate of exchange of Continental countries) and also, in another section, passport and visa restrictions).

French Railways (S.N.C.F.) publish their own time-tables, which may be obtained on application.

The *A.B.C. Quarterly Shipping Guide* lists the principal world liner and passenger steamer services.

The *A.B.C. World Airways Guide* gives all world air routes, lists of chartered air services, times of arrival and departure.

The *A.B.C. Coach and Bus Guide* gives the principal coach and bus services. But for details of each operating coach and bus company's service, a complimentary copy of the bus or coach time-table may be obtained from the operating company's head office.

L.P.T.B. Green Line and country bus time-table should be provided.

Accommodation lists will mostly be found in the official guides of the British holiday resorts, but for hotel accommodation there are the publications, *Hotels and Restaurants in Great Britain and Ireland* (British Hotels and Restaurants Association) and *Hotels in the British Isles* (British Travel and Holidays Association), the *R.A.C. Guide* and the *A.A. Handbook* (also one for Scotland and one for Ireland). The A.A. publications are only to be obtained by members of the Automobile Association.

For motorists the *R.A.C. Continental Handbook* is invaluable for those who want to take their vehicles abroad; private aeroplane owners will want to see the *Air Touring Guide to Europe*.

Let's Halt Awhile, edited by Ashley Courtenay; *Signpost*, and the *Good Food Guide* are useful to hotel and country inn seekers and gourmets.

The Jewish Chronicle Travel Guide and R. Crombie Saunders' *A Guide to the Fishing Inns of Scotland*, and *Where to Fish*, are examples of specialised books.

A Guide to Trust Houses (Trust Houses Ltd.), Poulgy's *Les Auberges de France* (Club de Sans-Souci), *The Illustrated Guide to Swiss Hotels* (Swiss National Tourist Office), *Where to stay in Scotland* (Scottish National Tourist Board).

The British Travel and Holidays Association invites public libraries to co-operate with them in having available to enquiries a copy or copies of the Official Guide and lists of available accommodation. In order to facilitate this, a batch of several hundred printed postcards is distributed annually by the B.T.H.A. to co-operating libraries. The local authority, on receipt of the card, sends free of charge to the library a copy or copies of its official guide, if it is an authority co-operating in the scheme.

Librarians should bear in mind the present-day cost of producing guides, and not expect twenty copies of an official guide from a minor holiday resort in the Highlands.

The B.T.H.A. also distributes posters and holiday publicity material, publishes folders and guides, and the magazine, *Coming Events in Britain*, *Calendar of Events in Britain*, *Special Occasions*, and a wealth of material.

The National Institute of Adult Education publishes a six-monthly guide to Summer Schools called *Residential short courses*; the London Council of Social Service Arts Bulletin and *Whats On in London*, deal with events in the capital.

The Youth Hostels Association and the International Youth Hostel Association, the Holiday Fellowship, the Ramblers' Association issue their guides; there are the directories of Holiday Camps and Caravans and Chalets, the Camping Club of Great Britain's list of Camping Sites (the handbook is for members only).

Foreign guide books which should certainly be available in all lending departments are the *Fodor Guides*, the *Guides Nagel*, *Guides Bleus*, *Michelin*, *Baedekker* and *Muirhead's*, *Europe Touring Guide*, etc.

British topographical guides include Ward Lock's *Red Guide Books*, Muirhead's *Blue Guides*, *Shell Guides*, the *County Books* (Robert Hale), the regional and individual Ministry of Works guides to the principal Ancient Monuments, Murray's *Architectural Guides* to the Counties of England, *The Little Guides* (Methuen).

Some of these should also be in any good Reference Library.

Maps should be in both reference and lending departments. A set of Ordnance Survey One-Inch and Bartholomew's maps of Ireland and the *Cartes Blondel la Rougery* for France should suffice for all except the larger reference libraries, plus good atlases and guides.

But the Lending Library should include $\frac{1}{2}$ in. and 1in. maps of the Ordnance Survey and the Bartholomew's series. For foreign maps, there are the Hallwag, Blondel la Rougery, Michelin, Shell and other series.

Rates of Exchange can be found for Europe in Cook's *Continental Time-table* and the *Financial Times* gives world rates in the money market. Worthy of highest commendation is the recent publication of the Swiss Bank Corporation, *British Exports and Exchange Restrictions Abroad*.

High and low tide is given in such a nautical almanac as Brown's; the Meteorological Office's *Averages of Temperature in the British Isles* is useful.

The Guild of Guide Lecturers publishes a list of guide/interpreters.

The overall picture for this country is given in *A Survey of Holiday Accommodation in the British Isles*, published, with detailed statistics, in 1951, by the British Travel and Holiday Association: another survey, in less detail, was published in 1955. The Annual Report of the B.T.H.A. for 1956 shows some of the

leaflets, posters, guides and types of holiday material which are available to public libraries participating in the Tourist Development scheme.

All this is what the public wanted and what every public library advertising holiday information could and should give. Anything less is unworthy.

Q. 2. Give examples of any THREE of the following: (a) a scheme of subject co-operation, (b) a scheme of regional co-operation, (c) a union list of periodicals, (d) a scheme of co-operative book purchase. Illustrate your answer in each case with descriptive notes.

(a) Co-operation between libraries interested in a particular subject field is developed to increase the efficiency of their service and to obtain the maximum coverage with the resources available. Co-operation may include the holding of meetings to discuss common problems; co-operative acquisition of books and periodicals to prevent unnecessary duplication; preparation of abstracts, indexes and union catalogues of periodical holdings; direct interlending between members; interavailability of readers' tickets and publication of guides to resources. The descriptive notes should be used to describe relevant features in the scheme selected as an example. Typical examples are:—

Standing Conference of Theological and Philosophical Libraries of London (S.C.O.T.A.P.L.L.).—Regular meetings are held to discuss mutual problems and a directory of members is published. Joint readers' tickets serve as an introduction to all libraries in the group. A union list of periodicals is maintained. There is co-operative purchase of books and periodicals and exchange of periodicals. An Association of British Theological and Philosophical Libraries was formed in October, 1956, to foster co-operation in this field on a national basis.

Co-operative Industrial and Commercial Reference and Information Services (C.I.C.R.I.S.).—Co-operation in the field of Commerce and Technology between public libraries, technical colleges and industrial libraries in the West London Area of S.E. Regional Board of Industry. Each of the public libraries specializes in certain technologies. A list of scientific and technical periodicals freely available within the area is published. Direct interlending between members is encouraged. Five union lists of basic materials are maintained, e.g., Abstracts and indexes at Hammersmith.

Other examples of subject co-operation on a regional basis are Sheffield Interchange Organization (SINTO); London Medical Libraries Scheme and E. Midlands Scheme for foreign languages. THE ASLIB subject groupings are examples of subject co-operation on a national basis.

(b) There are ten main schemes of library co-operation in Great Britain and they are adequately described in L.A. Pamphlet No. 2: *The regional library system*, by P. H. Sewell, 2nd ed. 1956.

Descriptive notes should include—Definition of the region served by the scheme and the types of libraries included; location of the Regional Bureau; procedure for locating requests within the region, e.g., union catalogue in Wales and Monmouthshire, S.E. Region, etc.; the zonal method in Yorkshire; circulation of stencilled lists in the North West with a limited union catalogue of special material; forms of co-operation within the region such as interlending, co-operative book purchase; subject specialization; publication of union list of periodicals.

(c) Union lists of periodicals may be national or regional in coverage and either general in scope or limited to a subject field. They may indicate library holding or simply list periodicals currently received. Descriptive notes should also indicate the period covered by the list, e.g., *World list of scientific periodicals* covers 1900 to 1950, B.U.C.O.P. from 17th century to the present day; arrangement of entries and details of periodicals excluded from the list—B.U.C.O.P. excludes newspapers first published after 1799, variant issues, periodicals not printed from type unless they are clearly of more than ephemeral interest, etc.

National examples are:—*British Union Catalogue of Periodicals* (B.U.C.O.P.) 1956; Gregory. *Union list of serials in the libraries of the U.S.A. and Canada: Union catalogue of the periodical publications in the university libraries of the British Isles*, 1936.

Regional examples:—*The London union list of periodicals*, 1951; *List of periodicals in the public libraries of Kent*, 1950; Periodicals currently received in the libraries of the North West, 1951.

Limited by subject:—*Survey of legal periodicals held in British libraries*, 1949; *World list of scientific periodicals*, 1900-1950; *Union list of scientific and technical periodicals in northern libraries*, 1955.

(d) Co-operative book purchase is organized between libraries to ensure that books which may not normally be added to the stock of any library in the group are purchased by at least one library and also to prevent unnecessary duplication.

An important example is the *Farmington Plan*. This is a scheme to ensure that at least one copy of every new foreign book and pamphlet that might reasonably be expected to interest a research worker in the U.S.A. will be acquired by an American library. Using the Library of Congress scheme as a basis, each co-operating library is allotted a subject field within which it is expected to acquire all relevant foreign material and to make it available either for interloan of photographic reproduction to other co-operating libraries.

In Great Britain co-operative book purchase is implicit in the schemes of subject specialization operating within the South Eastern, the Wales and Monmouth, the North Western Regions and the Metropolitan Special Collections.

The Metropolitan Scheme covers the London Boroughs and may be described as a typical example. The various subjects represented in Dewey's classification have been divided among the twenty-eight boroughs. Subjects are not distributed in strict order and related topics are allocated together. Each library is expected to expend a minimum of £200 each year, additional to the normal book fund, on the purchase of books and periodicals within the subject field allocated to it; to buy a copy of books listed in the B.N.B. costing more than 12s. 6d.; to collect older material either by purchase or as gifts and to buy and file periodicals on the subject. The other Regional schemes are less ambitious in that periodicals, foreign books and older material are not specifically included.

A different method is employed in the Northern and East Midland Regions. A monthly review is made of important books which have been published but not acquired and such books are systematically allocated for purchase to volunteer librarians within the region.

Mutual consultation about the purchase of costly books is a feature of the London Medical Libraries Co-operative Scheme.

Q.3. *Outline a course of TWO lectures on the use of a library to students of a County Technical College by either (a) a public librarian or (b) the librarian of the College.*

It will be assumed that the students have had no previous instruction and that (a) will be lectures on the use of the Public Library and (b) on the use of the Technical College Library, with references in each case to their complementary functions.

It is generally agreed that lectures on the use of a library are much more effective if accompanied by some form of practical work and a short period at the end of each lecture should be reserved for the purpose.

FIRST LECTURE.

(a) Library provides books, periodicals, pamphlets and other material for information and recreation. Arranged in departments according to function of material provided.

Reference Departments.—Information and study. Consultation of material on the premises. Definition of reference material, with examples. Local collection as background material to local industry and social conditions. Commercial and technical library—range of material of special interest to technical students, e.g., technical periodicals, standard works, trade catalogues, year books, etc. Facilities for study. Study rooms. Special services—register of translators, local societies, clippings file.

Lending Library.—Home reading. Wide range of fiction and non-fiction

available. Indicate range of stock by quoting examples. Readers' advisory service. Request service.

Periodicals Room.—Current periodicals displayed. Sets available on request.

Refer to other departments and to the function of Branch Libraries. Co-operation with industry in the district.

The Classification Scheme. Shelf arrangement. Plan of the departments.

The catalogue. Form of catalogue. Arrangement of entries. Significance of coloured guides. Variations in alphabetical arrangement. Explanation of the main entry, particularly collation. References.

Library publications—introduction to library, bulletins, catalogues.

Practical work—Questions prepared in advance on slips or cards for each student. Student will be required to find the class numbers of books, to locate books on the shelves, to list books on a particular subject and to trace information in books, using the catalogue and recording their answers for correction by the staff.

SECOND LECTURE.

How to use books and some types of reference material of particular interest to technical students.

The parts of a book and their purpose. Series title, title page, preface, table of contents, illustrations, introduction, bibliographies, index.

Periodicals.—Their value for recent contributions to a subject, especially science and technology. A large amount of material is only published in periodicals. Sets of periodicals maintained in the library. Description of any co-operative arrangements between the library, the college and local firms to avoid duplication. Guides to periodicals—visible index in the library, lists including union lists of periodicals available, indexes, abstracts and abstracting services. Facilities for provision of photo-copies.

Encyclopaedias, dictionaries.—General, English and foreign language. Special, scientific and technical. Authority, arrangement, use of index, bibliographies. Importance of cross-checking information by consulting several sources.

Standard Specifications.—Definition—regulations controlling composition, quality, size, shape, nature of industrial product. International Standards Association. British Standards Institute. American Standards Association. Guides to Standards.

Patents.—General description of inventions. Provisional specifications. System of numbering. Date of application and date of granting.

Bibliographies.—Definition. Scope, current or retrospective. Arrangement.

Examples of entries. Indexes.

Maps, atlases, gazetteers; Visual aids; Government publications may be described where time permits.

The lectures should be held in the library, preferably the technical library, and relevant material should be available for the students to examine.

Practical work will involve the use of this material by students to answer a series of set questions, prepared in advance.

(b) These lectures could follow the same arrangement as (a) with the following exceptions—the college librarian in the first lecture would describe the arrangement and the type of material provided in the technical college library. He would point out that the stock was selected to supplement the work of the college and that textbooks were excluded. Departments in the library would not conform to the public library pattern. The use of the library for the purpose of study and the importance of background reading should be stressed. Reference should also be made to the wider range of the public library stock.

The second lecture on the use of books and reference material will be the same for both lecturers.

Q.8. Give a description of ONE encyclopaedia from EACH of any THREE of the following countries, stressing the arrangement, scope, state of revision, etc.: U.S.A., France, Germany, Italy, Spain.

U.S.A.

Encyclopaedia Americana New edition. 30 vols. (1918-20) 1947 issue. 1949. The 1st edition was in 1903-4. Value of early editions.

The last complete revision was in the 1918-20 edition, but a policy of continuous revision is maintained. Strong on science, technology and commerce: important articles, signed by specialists. The bibliographies are uneven; illustrations numerous and of a good standard. Reviews and digests of outstanding works in music and literature are included.

Since 1943, the index has been alphabetical, but before then was classified. Since 1923, the *American Annual* has been issued as a supplement.

Collier's Encyclopaedia 20 volumes. 1949-51. Vol. 20 is a bibliography and an index. The articles are short, for the most part, and designed for High School and college standard. Articles are written by and signed by specialists. *Collier's Yearbook*, 1939.

New International Encyclopaedia 2nd ed. 23 volumes and 4 supplements. 1922-30.

In 1902-4, the work was in 17 volumes, preceded in 1886 by the *International Encyclopaedia* which in turn was preceded by *Alden's Library of Universal Knowledge*.

Vols. 1-23, A-Z. Vols. 24-25, Supplementary, 1925. Vols. 1-2, Supplement. 1930. Important articles by specialists, but unsigned. Contains many articles on specific subjects, e.g., Authors, giving the best editions and translations, articles on individual works and sometimes even famous characters. *The New International Year Book* is a supplement.

Columbia Encyclopaedia 2nd edition. 1951.

Brief bibliographies. Articles linked by cross-references.

Lincoln Library of Essential Information 19th edition. 1950.

For "daily reference, self-instruction and general culture." Includes useful tables. Arranged by large topics. Contains such information on the various wedding anniversaries as, e.g., iron, silver, paper weddings.

FRANCE.

Apart from the monumental work of Diderot and d'Alembert, 35 vols., 1751-80, the French encyclopaedias worthy of note include:—

La Grande Encyclopaedia 31 vols. 1887-1902.

Authoritative, signed articles, excellent bibliographies; many entries under small subjects. A great authority for medieval and Renaissance subjects and literature, history and biography of continental Europe. (Is becoming near-obsolete).

Grand Dictionnaire Universel du 19e Siecle 17 vols. 1866-90. Vols. 1-15, A-Z. Vol. 16 Supplement. Vol. 17 Supplement.

Combines the features of a dictionary and of an encyclopaedia. Articles on small subjects, including many on works of literature. Words and airs of 600 French songs. Good for European literature, biography and history.

Larousse du 20e Siecle 6 vols. 1928-33 (1948-9 issue) Ed. by P. Augé. Briefer articles than the *Grande Dictionnaire*. Popular illus.

The 1948-9 issue contains a green paper supplement. Popular wood-cuts guide the text, but these are somewhat old-fashioned! Good for Art.

Nouveau Larousse Universel 2 vols. 1948-9. 13, 168 engravings. Replaces the 1923 *Larousse*.

Larousse Mensuel Illustre 1907-40. 1948-. An alphabetical monthly supplement to the *Nouveau Larousse*. Contains larger illustrations and a cumulative

index. Note also "La seconde guerre mondiale." 1952.

Grande Memento Encyclopedique Larousse 2 vols. 1949-50.

Memento Larousse Illustre 1949.

Encyclopaedia Française 1935.

Subject-grouped under large classes. Each volume has an alphabetical index. General index to the final volume. Illustrations are good, but few. Issued in pamphlet loose-leaf form, but incomplete, not much bibliographical listing.

Dictionnaire Encyclopedique Quillet Edited by Raoul Mortier. (Quillet) 6 volumes. 1953.

Clartes Encyclopedie Pratique due Savoir Moderne, 1945-. 16 volumes, subject-headed under Matter, Life, Action, Thought; e.g., Tome XII. Les lois de l'action. XI Les grands faits de l'histoire.

GERMAN.

Brockhau's Konversations—Lexikon. Der grosse Brockhaus. 12 vols. 1952-7. The illustrations are good, and there are select bibliographies. Some of the entries and longer articles in older editions are omitted.

Der Neue Brockhaus 4 vols. and atlas. 1936-48. (Much Nazi influence in the earlier volumes).

Herder's Konversations-Lexikon Der grosse Herder. 5th edition. 1952.

Meyer's Kleines Lexikon 4 vols. 1933.

Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon Leipzig. Bibliographies Institut. 8th ed. 1936. Vols. 1-9, 1936-42.

Very concise, unsigned articles. Good for heraldic illustrations. Good for geographical, scientific and technical subjects, but less comprehensive than *Brockhaus*.

Ersch, J. S. and J. G. Gruber. *Allgemeine Encyclopedie der Wissenschaften und Künste* . . . 167 volumes. 1818-1850.

Zedler, J. H. *Grosses Vollständiges Universal Lexikon*. Halle, 64 vols. 1837-50. Supplement. 4 vols. 1751-4.

Scholarly, yet popular presentation.

ITALY.

Enciclopedia Italiana . . . 36 vols. 1929-1939.
di scienze, lettere ed arti . . .

Supplimento I. 1938. II. 1938-48. 3 volumes.

Some of the political articles were signed by such personalities as the late Signor Mussolini, Sig. Starace, etc. But it is a magnificent work, particularly fine for illustrations and for Art.

Enciclopedia Cattolica 1948—Commenced in 1948, by 1953 had reached vol. 11. Sponsored by an editorial committee of thirty, including two bishops. Strong on sacred art, church history, folk-lore and, of course, theology and religion.

SPAIN.

Enciclopedia Universal Illustrada Europeo-Americana. Madrid. Espasa-Calpe. 1905-1933. 70 vols. and 10 vols. of supplements. Annual and poly-annual Supplements, e.g., 1945-8. 1953.

Especially useful for the history of Spain and biography of both Spain and its colonies. The 1953 supplement covers the period 1945-8.

Long monographs, maps good, illustrations fairly good. Contains a foreign dictionary in six main languages and Esperanto.

FINAL PART I : BIBLIOGRAPHY AND BOOK SELECTION

Q. 5. *Why is a detailed examination of a 16th and 17th century book essential before recording it in a bibliography? What features should be looked for in such an examination, and why?*

The chief reason for making a detailed examination of a 16th or 17th century book is to discover that information about it which will be required for recording in the bibliography. Only when this information is set down in the form of a full standard bibliographical description, will it be possible to use the results of the examination for comparison with other copies or editions of the same book (especially when copies cannot be brought together physically).

Whereas few modern books display unusual or irregular features, books of the 16th and 17th centuries were usually irregular in several particulars. These were due to the methods of the compositor and printer at that period. The processes of composition especially in the setting-up of reprints, of printing and proof-correction on the press and the careful using up of paper (which was scarce) led to differences in copies and editions of the same book. It is the discovery of these differences and their recording in a bibliography which may result in information being discovered about the way the book was printed and its bearing on the transmission of the text.

Besides the information obtained for the purposes of the bibliographical description, the reading of prefaces, dedications and advertisements may lead to evidence being discovered relating to the authorship and composition of the book.

Two needs are thus served by a bibliographical examination: that of the bibliographer interested in the history of printing and the literary editor whose concern is the transmission of a literary text.

The features to be looked for in an examination may follow the order of the bibliographical description (but note this question does not ask you to describe such a description) or as follows under the important features. Not all the information which will be discovered can be economically recorded in the description, in fact some, e.g., the deterioration of woodcut capitals, can only be shown by facsimile illustrations of them.

TITLE-PAGES, ETC.

It will be necessary to record and transcribe title-pages, colophons or explicits. The information given in them may not be accurate. False and misleading details of printer and dates were common. Title-pages were used as an advertisement of the book and were usually contrived by the printer rather than by the author.

PAPER AND WATER-MARKS (including chain and wire lines).

(a) The position of the water-marks is, of course, significant in the determination of the format, which in itself is important since the method used for imposition can be discovered. The actual watermark used should be noted—it may be of assistance in determining or confirming the date of an undated or falsely dated book by reference to such a work as Briquet's *Les filigraines*.

(b) Chain and wire lines help to indicate format. If they run a different way from what is normal for the book or gathering, a cancel or forgery may be suspected.

(c) Cancels or forgeries may be suspected also from paper of a different texture or a stub of paper.

SIGNATURES.

(a) The signatures will need to be carefully examined. The sequence of the signatures and whether they commence on A or B or an arbitrary sign is of relevance in deciding whether a book is a first or revised edition or a reprint without revision.

(b) Gaps in the signatures may indicate the book was printed on different presses or by different printers. Repeated signatures, e.g., A, B, C, C, D, usually show a reprint.

(c) The position of a particular signature letter should be noted (in several copies). Any difference will be due to resetting.

CATCHWORDS.

Any departure from their correct use (i.e., if they are not to be found in the text of the page being examined) means a reprint or a revision. Catchwords were frequently copied from an earlier edition even though the particular page had been altered.

FOLIATION AND PAGINATION.

This should be noted, as printers were frequently careless in numbering folios and pages and gaps and repetitions in pagination may not be accompanied by gaps or repetitions in the text.

RUNNING-TITLES.

(a) Discrepancies in running-titles may give evidence of earlier forms of the title-page or of reprints.

(b) Running-titles may show reprints or cancels or other changes in the text. If the form of the running-title differs in different sections, it may mean that the book was composed on different presses or by different printers in parts.

TYPOGRAPHICAL NOTE.

This is most useful for the student of the history of printing and of little use for the student of the text. Occasionally it is of value in distinguishing variants and reprints by a comparison of measurements of distances across a selected page in different copies and the date of printing may be established or confirmed by an examination of the type used.

BORDERS AND INITIALS.

Borders, initials, ornaments and woodcut capitals may assist in dating and deciding the order of editions by (a) noting deterioration and referring to dated editions, (b) by reference to such works as McKerrow's *Printers' and Publishers' Devices*.

BINDING AND NOTES OF OWNERSHIP.

These may assist in dating. Manuscript additions to the text may be those of a famous owner or the author.

Thus by a bibliographical examination (when considered in relation to other copies perhaps) it should be possible to discover for a particular book, when it was printed and by whom, what edition it is and the relation between the text of the particular copy to the author's manuscript, and whether it is a perfect copy (that is, its relation to an "ideal copy").

Q.8. *The purchase of expensive general encyclopaedias in English for medium-sized general libraries or for special libraries raise a difficult problem in book selection. Discuss the main factors which must be taken into account in making decisions in this field.*

For the medium-sized general library or the special library, the chief problem in the selection of a general expensive encyclopaedia in English is a question of cost. (That statement is not quite the truism it would appear to be on first sight). A medium-sized general library will need some encyclopaedia in English. The questions are (a) How much can be afforded? and (b) What returns, i.e., how much use can be expected from the encyclopaedia chosen, for the money spent. Obviously the library will expect the optimum value for its expenditure. A special library may need an encyclopaedia. Here the question is: Will the expense of purchasing the work be justified in the use made of it and the shelf-space taken up? A lot depends upon the character of the library and its situation.

A library in a very specialised field may have very few calls on the general information to be found in an encyclopaedia, but a newspaper library will need it as much as a general library. A medical library may, for example, get requests for background information, for historical purposes. In all special libraries there may be need for an encyclopaedia for elucidating marginal points, that is for information falling just out of the scope of the special library. A further factor, the situation of the special library, is very important. If the library is near either a general library or another special library, then the question is much simpler. In the first case, the special library may decide to rely on the general library; in the second, one special library may decide to buy (say) *Chambers's* and the other *Britannica*. If both special libraries are isolated from general libraries and they receive many general enquiries, the expense may be justified—unless they are already on the Telex Service!

What are the uses of an encyclopaedia such as *Britannica*? It serves a very useful function in providing introductory accounts to many subjects. These can be useful if the librarian tackling an enquiry is not very well informed on the subject. It may give him the answer to the enquiry or give him clues to where the answer will be found. Then an encyclopaedia provides useful short accounts on many subjects where the enquirer does not require more detailed information. Against this there are many times when the information given is too sketchy to be of use, especially when looking for British information in an American encyclopaedia (and that includes *Britannica*). However, there is usually much information not traceable elsewhere. Biographical articles in a general encyclopaedia are usually quite good. On the other hand, the wide range of knowledge covered means that scientific and technical information given is usually insufficient, even in a general library. The information given may be out of date, depending on the state of revision of the encyclopaedia being used. But it is in the bibliographies, when they are up to date, that an encyclopaedia proves its usefulness. One of the books listed, if it is obtainable, may give the complete answer to an enquiry.

Much depends in a general library on the extent and quality of the stock of the reference library. The poorer the stock the more need there will be for a good encyclopaedia. Yet even the best libraries will have their encyclopaedias in constant use because of the frequently recondite information required and only to be found therein. (I know of a university library which has three *Britannica's* and two *Chambers's*—and they are not sufficient for the use made of them!)

Should a British or an American encyclopaedia be chosen? A British library is going to need most of all "home" information. The post-war editions of *Chambers's* give natural prominence to this information and I do not think there is much doubt that *Chambers's* is the best first encyclopaedia for a general library. Besides it is much cheaper than *Britannica*.

If it is a second encyclopaedia which is called for, then there is practically no question that *Britannica* will be the choice, although *Collier's* would be a useful alternative (except the bibliographies are all in one volume). If the 1950, or especially the 1956 edition of *Chambers's* has been bought, then the very latest edition of *Britannica* need not be provided. Many articles are the same in the 14th edition and the 11th and earlier editions have their uses. It is quite easy to cover technical and scientific information at encyclopaedia standard from other sources. There are many good introductions to nuclear physics, electronics, digital computers and so on to be found in the reasonably good lending stock.

The question may be whether to go to the expense of purchasing a new edition of an encyclopaedia already in stock, e.g., the 1956 *Chambers's* or the latest London printing of *Britannica*. Here a very careful assessment of the new information given will be required. A careful comparison will have to be made with the earlier edition. Is the new information available easily and conveniently elsewhere, e.g., the 1951 Census figures given in the 1956 *Chambers's*? Just how much of the encyclopaedia has been revised and how much taken over, unrevised, from the earlier edition? If the *Britannica Book of the Year* or the *Chambers's Encyclopaedia* is taken, is the purchase of a later edition justified? These year-books often contain information which will not be incorporated in the

encyclopaedia.

Only the larger libraries are likely to be able to afford other English language encyclopaedias such as the American. They do not really enter into the discussion of the provision of encyclopaedia in medium and special libraries. All reference books are potentially useful but there are unfortunately limits to shelf space available.

(N.B.—Even at Final level it is necessary sometimes to remind candidates to read the questions carefully, to answer all the parts and to discuss when a discussion is asked for).

FINAL PART 4 (d). HISTORICAL BIBLIOGRAPHY

PAPER I.

On the whole a very fair paper, based solidly on the syllabus and lacking those questions on trivialities and obscurities which terrify candidates and infuriate tutors. Those who worked conscientiously through the syllabus should have coped very well.

Q.4, however, merits some very serious criticism. Candidates are asked to write on the contributions to the development of paper-making of: John Tate the Younger; John Baskerville; Denis Robert. Why John Tate the Younger? As far as bibliography students are concerned there was only one John Tate, and I doubt if many know that he was named after his father. How many, I wonder, have read the lines in *De proprietatibus rerum*, 1496 [?]:

“And John Tate the yonger loye mote he broke
Whiche late hathe in Englonde do make this paper thynne
That now in our englyssh this boke is prynted Inne”

Surely it is necessary to identify father and son only when they are both met with in the same field of study. One does not like to make too much of this, but the candidate with little confidence may well have wondered if there was another John Tate of whom he had not heard. In any case, what contribution did John Tate make to the development of paper-making? He was the first English paper-maker of whom we have any record, but does this constitute a contribution to the development of the art?

Still on Q.4 and passing over Baskerville, we come to the shadowy figure of Denis Robert. Many candidates must have wondered who he was. Nor will a check in the text-books bring him to light, unless the first edition of Esdaile is checked. There will be found a Denis Nicolas Robert credited with the invention of the paper-making machine. In the third edition, revised by Mr. Stokes, we find the name changed to Nicolas Louis Robert—a name known to every Registration student as that of the inventor of the paper-making machine.

In short this was a very simple question on which the reasonably prepared candidate could have managed a very sound pass. I suspect that some candidates left it alone because of uncertainty—uncertainty entirely the fault of the examiner, and quite unpardonable.

Q.5 *What were the chief enactments affecting the Freedom of the Press up to 1700?*

A straightforward question on an important subject which no candidate should have neglected to study.

Nowadays, “Freedom of the Press” means to us the right to print what we wish. However, it means more than that, as past enactments curtailing it have demonstrated. It means the freedom to print where, when and what we wish.

The relevant enactments required by the examiners are the *Star Chamber Decrees* of 1586 and 1637, and the *Licensing Act*, 1662.

The *Star Chamber Decree* of 1586 confined printing to London and the two universities. Thus printing in the provinces ceased or became clandestine. The Decree also stated that the number of presses was to be reduced to a number deemed sufficient by the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Bishop of London, and all books were to be licensed. With one stroke, therefore, the government

attempted to confine printing to a small area, control the number of printers and control what those printers produced. The Decree did not succeed in any of these aims as clandestine presses, prosecution of printers and the *Stationers' Company Order* of 1615 bear witness. The latter stipulated that only twenty-two printers should practice in London.

The rigorous hounding of offending printers during the reign of Charles I culminated in the *Star Chamber Decree* of 1637. Again, this Decree was an attempt at complete control and would not have been necessary if the Decree of 1586 had been successful. The new measure confirmed existing ordinances and fixed the number of printers at twenty-three, including the King's printer and the printers at the universities. All books were to be licensed by the appropriate authority. In the case of law books this was the Lord Chief Justice; history books the principal Secretaries of State; books on heraldry the Earl Marshal; and all other books the Archbishop of Canterbury, Bishop of London, or Chancellors or Vice-Chancellors of the universities. Books had to be entered in the Stationers' Register and bear the names of the printer, author and publisher. The final clause is interesting in another connection—it ordered the sending of a copy of every book to the University of Oxford. Drastic as the Decree was, it soon lost its effect and became a dead letter when the Star Chamber was abolished in 1641. However, much of it was imposed again by Parliament by an Ordinance of 1643—the measure which called forth Milton's *Areopagitica*.

After the Restoration came the allegations of Sir Roger L'Estrange that the Stationers' Company was not carrying out its duties of control satisfactorily. The result was the *Licensing Act*, which was very largely a re-enactment of the *Star Chamber Decree* of 1637. The number of printers was reduced to twenty (L'Estrange found they had increased to sixty), and the other clauses were reinforced. The Act was a crushing blow to the Stationers' Company, whose duty and privilege of searching for unlicensed books was withdrawn. The following year L'Estrange was appointed to the office of "Surveyor of the Imprimery and Printing Presses." He enforced the Act with greater zeal than had been the case under previous measures, and very great ill-feeling was caused until it was allowed to lapse three years later. After twenty years it was renewed by James II in 1685, and it finally lapsed in 1695. During its revival the Act was not very strictly enforced, as is clear from the number of presses throughout the country during the latter part of the century.

The final expiry of the Licensing Act was the end of attempted State control. From then on printing was permissible in the provinces and censorship was at an end. The measures to control the press were never really successful.

PAPER 2.

Also a not unreasonable paper, solidly based on the syllabus.

In this paper also Q.4 has a father and son problem. Candidates are asked to write a short account of three or four given names. The first of these is Robert Estienne. But which Robert Estienne? Robert I or Robert II? Of course the examiner means the elder, the only Robert Estienne of whom most candidates will know anything. Though the examiner seems inconsistent in his treatment of families, he has, in this case, saved some candidates from uncertainty! So what the candidate loses on the roundabouts he gains upon the swings!

Q.3. *What changes took place in the relationship of English and continental printing in the 18th century.*

An interesting question on an interesting period.

Before one can recognise changes one must know the relationship of English and continental printing before the 18th century. Very briefly, English printing was very much the poor relation. Influence was all in one direction, the Continent leading and England lagging behind.

Before the 18th century the quality of English printing was not to be compared with that of the Continent. Of course, there were exceptions, but gener-

ally English type and typography were undistinguished, press-work poor and paper indifferent.

The changes which took place in the 18th century were: a vast improvement in the standard of English printing and new independence of the Continent, also, English influence was felt on the Continent and England accomplished a certain amount of original technical development.

At the beginning of the 18th century England was very dependent on the supply of Dutch types, and it has been claimed that all the best and most important books were printed with Dutch type. England lacked a type-founder of distinction until Caslon began work. Caslon is not remembered for originality or for influence on foreign type-designers, but for the fact that he was our first really competent type-founder. He put an end to England's dependence on foreign types. Throughout his life, Caslon ignored the new developments in type design introduced by the designers on the Continent. He was to that extent independent, but on the other hand he took as his model the best Dutch types of the century before. Caslon's types were so widely accepted in this country that during his lifetime he had no serious competitor. He established good type founding in England and later in the century there were other competent men such as Thorne, J. and E. Fry, Martin, etc.

The Caslon types made possible an improvement of English printing, and because of them, English printing acquired a greater degree of freedom. Yet, until 1750, England was still the poor relation, still behind her continental neighbours in typographical achievement and enterprise. Then came Baskerville, who achieved much and was certainly not lacking in enterprise. Before Baskerville, conscious fine printing was unknown in England, and he was the first English printer to earn and deserve a continental reputation. For the first time the relationship was reversed and continental printing was influenced by an English printer. Baskerville was our second great type designer and our first book designer of genius. It was, in fact, Baskerville's style of book production, not his type design, which influenced the distinguished continental printers—they copied his spaced capitals and leaded pages. Together with Fournier, Baskerville was the inspiration of Bodoni.

Baskerville was the first English type designer to produce a design with modern face tendencies, yet even in England, modern face came from the French, and not as a development of Baskerville.

It was not usual for England to lead in the field of technical development, but here again Baskerville had an important contribution to make. His "wove" paper was copied on the Continent. Another example of technical development in England was the contribution towards the development of a satisfactory method of producing stereotype plates. William Ged made abortive attempts to develop stereotype in 1727, but the really important development was by Foulis and Tilloch (who were granted a patent in 1784), and later by Stanhope, whose plaster process was perfected in 1802. Perhaps we have no real claim here as Ged, Foulis and Tilloch were Scotsmen.

To think of 18th century book illustration is to think of the beautiful engraved illustrations of French books of the period. However, in the late 18th century England took the lead in the revival of the wood block, which for so long had been eclipsed by the engraving on copper. Using the white-line technique of wood engraving, Thomas Bewick produced work of a delicacy and natural charm never before produced on wood.

In the work of the late 18th century printers, particularly Bulmer and Bensley, English printing reached new heights. There began, as Sir Frances Meynell has said, "a half-century of brilliance, during which England set the fashion for the Continent." This was indeed a changed relationship.

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It is hoped to include in the next issue of the Assistant Librarian an article on the new Copyright Act which has had to be omitted from this supplement because of lack of space.

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